Future
BOOKAZINE

ICONIC MOMENTS *in* POLITICS

DISCOVER THE PEOPLE & EVENTS THAT SHAPED OUR WORLD

From the makers of ALL ABOUT HISTORY

Digital Edition
Future

WATERGATE ◆ TIANANMEN SQUARE ◆ MANDELA ◆ BREXIT

ICONIC MOMENTS *in* POLITICS

More than any other force in history, politics has shaped the world that we live in today. Behind every great war or revolution, and every charismatic leader or head of state, is a political motivation and ideology. Great political moments are sometimes understated – the signing of a document, the delivery of a speech – but this belies their significance. The consequences of these decisions, agreements and denouncements can affect the lives of billions of people around the world, and they can profoundly alter the course of history, for good or ill. Throughout Iconic Moments in Politics you'll see some of the most important political events in history brought to life through evocative imagery and expertly written features. From the great revolutionary movements in France, Russia and the United States, to more recent events like Brexit, the Watergate Scandal and the outbreak of the Arab Spring, we've collected a wealth of important entries that span both continents and centuries. We hope you enjoy it.

ICONIC MOMENTS *in* POLITICS

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bookazine series

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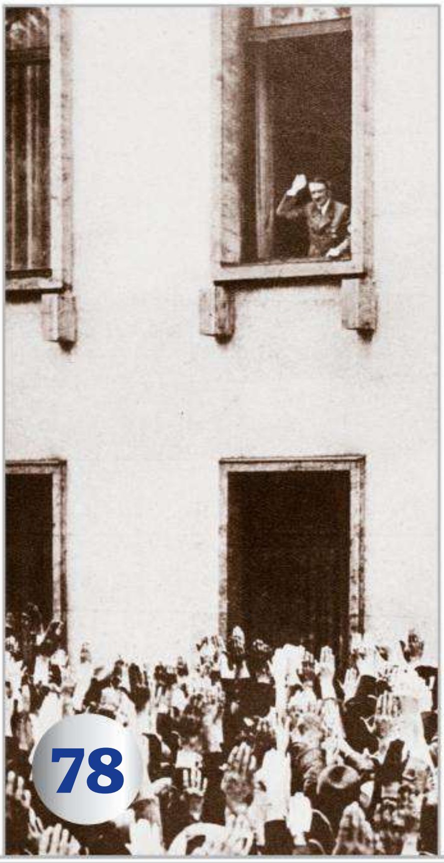

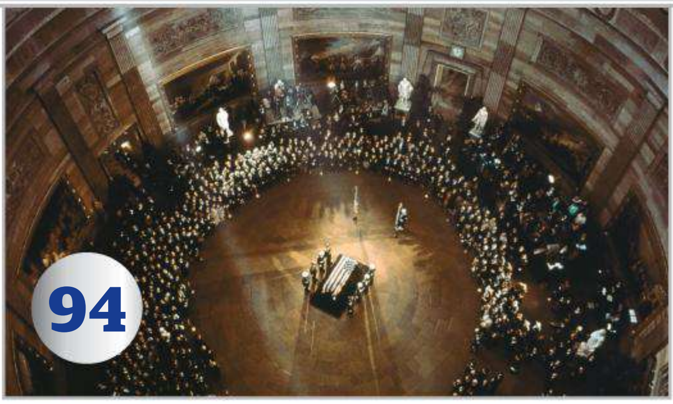

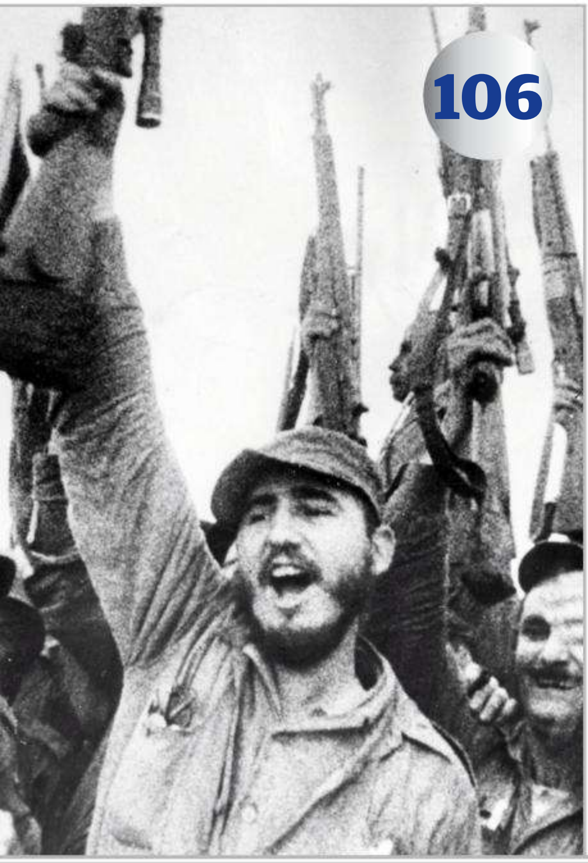

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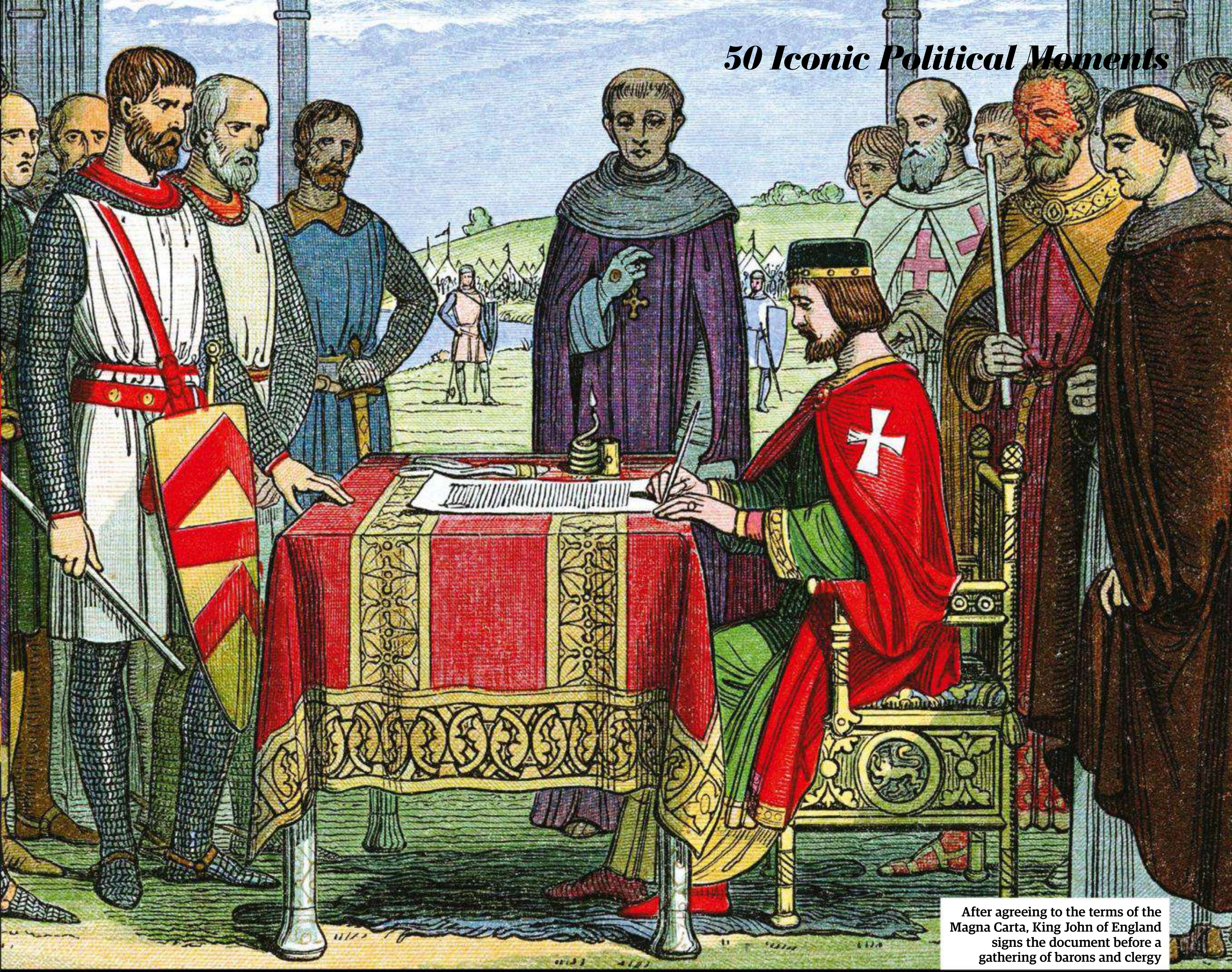
50 ICONIC POLITICAL MOMENTS

Epochal moments in political history have shaped our world. Join us as we examine these milestones, and gain an understanding of who we really are



After agreeing to the terms of the Magna Carta, King John of England signs the document before a gathering of barons and clergy

15 JUNE, 1215

MAGNA CARTA

King John acknowledges that his rule, rather than absolute, is subject to tenets of the law

In the meadow of Runnymede along the River Thames just west of London, King John of England assents to the tenets of the Magna Carta, or Great Charter, on 15 June, 1215. As the threat of revolt among his barons looms, the king accepts demands that provide for the election of 25 barons to ensure the implementation of freedoms relating to the church, the removal of the threat of illegal imprisonment, the setting of a limit on baronial payments to the king's coffers, and the provision of reasonable access to justice through the legal system.

Neither side lives up to its obligations in the bargain, and Pope Innocent III soon nullifies the document. Shortly thereafter, the First Barons' War erupts. Following the death of King John in 1216, his son, Henry III, reinstates a revised version of the Magna Carta, hoping to gain greater political support for the crown. The document is incorporated into the Treaty of Lambeth that ends the war the following year. Another revision occurs in 1225, and King Edward I declares the Magna Carta a component of English legislative and written law in 1297.

Although the Magna Carta may have originally referred to the relationship between the monarch and his barons, rather than the broader public at large, it remains one of the foremost documents in the context of human rights in history. While its significance diminished in practical application as Parliament considered and passed new laws, its influence still shapes political thinking today.

References to the Magna Carta were common during the many arguments against the divine right of kings prior to the start of the British Civil Wars in 1642. It has shaped the ideals of democratic government for centuries, exerting influence on the American and French revolutions and the subsequent drafting of documents related to the basic rights of citizens.

Origins

- King Henry I proclaims Charter of Liberties, **1100**
- King John appeals to Pope in dispute with Barons**, 1213**
- French victory at the Battle of Bouvines, **1214**

Legacy

- Limits on the power of government
- The rule of law applies to all
- Foundational document of modern democracy

EMPEROR CONSTANTINE CONVENES COUNCIL OF NICEA 20 MAY, 325

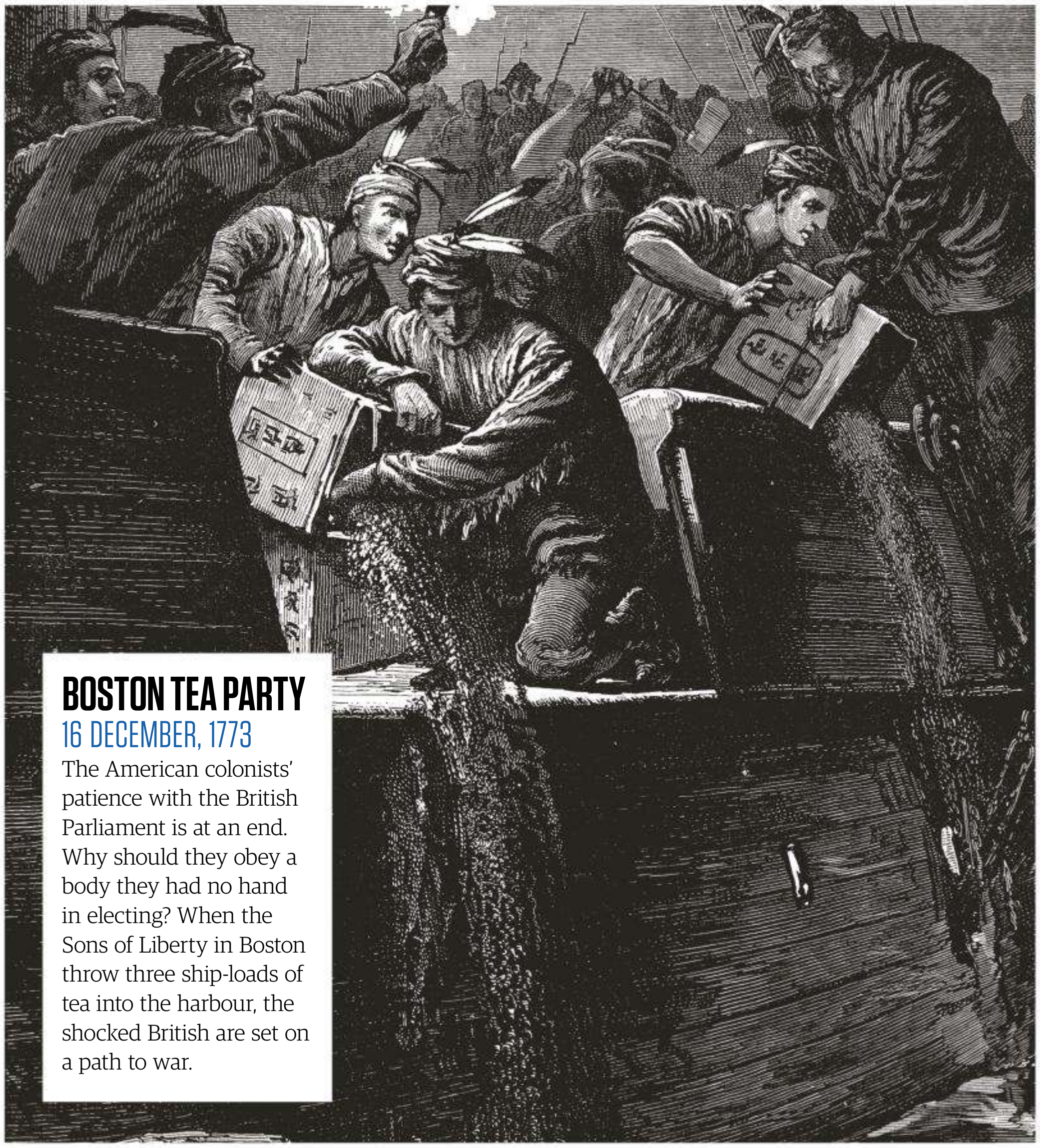
Emperor Constantine, famed for issuing the Edict of Milan in 313, which effectively ended the persecution of Christians in the Roman Empire, and for founding the city of Constantinople, the capital of the Byzantine Empire, in 324, convenes the First Council of Nicea, a gathering seeking to establish consensus on the basic tenets of the Christian faith.

CHARLEMAGNE CROWNED EMPEROR OF THE ROMANS 25 DECEMBER, 800

A gifted military strategist who strives to unite all Germanic peoples under common rule and convert them to Christianity, Charlemagne is crowned emperor of the Holy Roman Empire by Pope Leo III in Rome. Charlemagne is remembered as a ruthless battlefield commander as well as the defender of Western Christianity. He is sometimes described as the 'Father of Europe'.

Assassination of Julius Caesar 15 March, 44 BCE

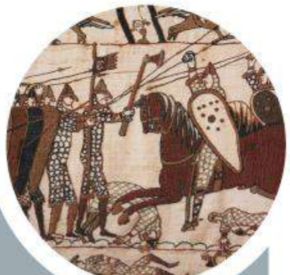
Only days after Julius Caesar is appointed dictator in perpetuum, a conspiracy among members of the Roman Senate results in his assassination near the Theatre of Pompey in Rome. Marcus Junius Brutus, Gaius Cassius Longinus and Decimus Junius Brutus lead the conspiracy among the senators, who fear that Caesar intends to dissolve the body in favour of an absolute dictatorship.



BOSTON TEA PARTY

16 DECEMBER, 1773

The American colonists' patience with the British Parliament is at an end. Why should they obey a body they had no hand in electing? When the Sons of Liberty in Boston throw three ship-loads of tea into the harbour, the shocked British are set on a path to war.



BATTLE OF HASTINGS

14 OCTOBER, 1066

The Norman Army under William the Conqueror defeats the Anglo-Saxon Army led by King Harold Godwinson at Hastings, the pivotal battle of the Norman conquest of England. William solidifies his claim to the English throne, ushering in an unprecedented period of social, economic, and political change for England and the British Isles.

ZHU YUANZHANG IS CROWNED EMPEROR OF CHINA 23 JANUARY, 1368

After the fall of the Mongol Yuan Dynasty, Hongwu Emperor Zhu Yuanzhang is crowned emperor of China and the first of the Ming dynasty. For nearly three centuries the Ming emperors rule China during one of the most stable political and social periods in its history. Among the lasting monuments to the industriousness of the Ming dynasty is the Great Wall of China.

EXECUTION OF WILLIAM WALLACE

23 AUGUST, 1305

A political and military leader during the Scottish Wars for Independence, William Wallace defeated an English army at the Battle of Sterling Bridge in 1297 but met defeat at Falkirk the following year. Wallace is captured in August 1305, taken to London, and hung, drawn and quartered for high treason. He has since become an iconic and polarising figure in British history.

DEATH OF GENGHIS KHAN 18 AUGUST, 1227

Both feared and revered, the great Genghis Khan united the Mongol peoples, embarked on a series of conquests and controlled the Silk Road, which permitted trade and communication between East and West to flourish. After his death, the Mongol Empire becomes the largest in history in terms of land mass.

1397

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE MEDICI BANK

The patronage of the Medici, a family of bankers, served as a catalyst for the Renaissance.

By the time Giovanni de' Medici founded the Medici Bank in 1397, his family was already somewhat prosperous in 14th century Florence. Much of the Medici wealth had been derived from the textile industry. However, the tremendous success of the bank brings with it even greater riches and political power in the city. While Giovanni shuns public office, he becomes one of the wealthiest men in Europe and establishes a dynasty that will shape the course of history for more than 300 years.

As the Medici Bank becomes the largest in Europe and the principal financial institution of the Roman Catholic Church, the family come to dominate the Florentine political scene, and their influence spreads throughout the western Mediterranean. Eventually, nine branches of the Medici Bank are in operation. Meanwhile, the family produces three popes and two queens of France. Although the representative form of government is never abolished, and the city's legislative councils sometimes oppose the family's wishes, three generations of the Medici generally control the Florentine political scene during the 15th century.

The most significant contribution of the Medici family to the life of Florence and to Western culture takes place during the supremacy of Cosimo de' Medici and Lorenzo de' Medici, respectively the son and great-grandson of Giovanni. Cosimo's patronage during the Italian Renaissance — the transitional era from the Middle Ages to modern history that produces a tremendous flowering of the visual arts, architecture, music, and philosophy — serves as a catalyst for the continuation of the era. Along with other leading families of Florence, Cosimo provides financial support for such famed artists as the sculptor Donatello and painters Fra Angelico and Fra Filippo Lippi, while Lorenzo supports renowned artists Boticelli and Michelangelo, among others.

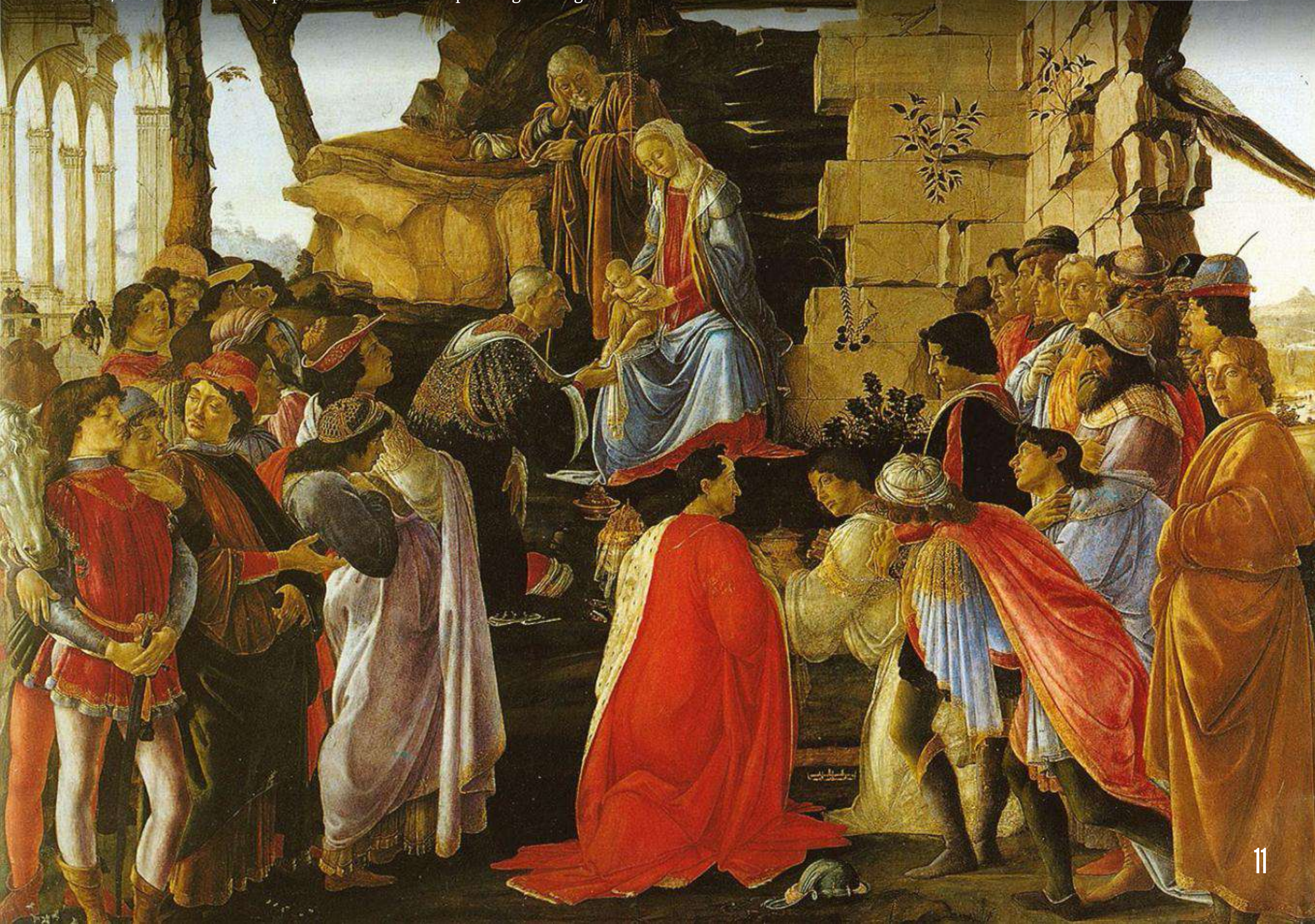
After nearly a century of operation, the Medici Bank collapses amid economic depression in 1494. However, the measure of its critical contribution to the wealth of the family and in turn the progress of the Italian Renaissance is incalculable.

Origins

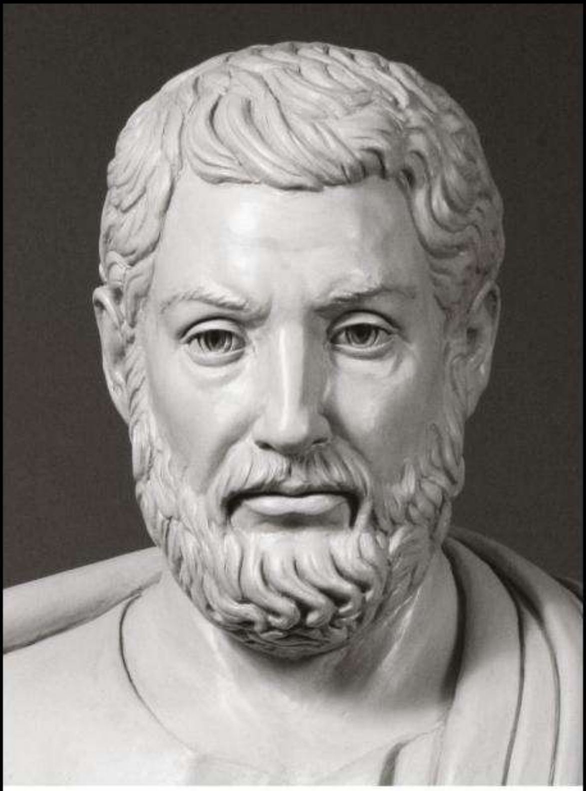
- Florence becomes the banking centre of Europe, **1298**
- Birth of Giovanni de' Medici, **1360**
- Rival Alberti family banished from Florence, **1382**

Legacy

- Medici Bank refines financial processes
- Generational wealth maintains political influence
- Private patronage permits the Renaissance to flourish



Several members of the Medici family, including Lorenzo, are depicted in *The Adoration of the Magi*, painted by Sandro Boticelli circa 1475



Cleisthenes introduced reforms to the framework of Athenian democracy and helped to firmly instill its principles in the government of the city-state

508 BCE

CLEISTHENES INTRODUCES DEMOCRATIC REFORMS IN ATHENS

Refinements to the Athenian constitution move the city-state further towards democracy

During a brief six-year period of supremacy in the city-state of Athens, Cleisthenes, an Athenian of noble birth, expands the tenets of democratic government and soon becomes known as the 'father of Democracy'.

Nearly a century earlier, another Athenian statesman, Solon, had introduced elements of democracy in Athens. Cleisthenes reduces the power of the aristocracy and reorients the political structure to that of the village or area in which a citizen was born, rather than a focus on familial ties, lines of succession and social status.

He then establishes ten tribes in Athens with these villages as centres of political participation. The tribes encompass three 'thirds', or villages with groups of citizens eligible to serve in the legislative assembly.

Each tribe is equally balanced, with a third from the coastal plains, the city and the interior of the city-state outside the bounds of Athens proper. Each tribe then selects 50 citizens to serve on the expanded Council of 500. The people of the city-state begin to think of themselves as Athenians, rather than being a member of a particular family.

Origins

- A monarchy is the earliest Athenian government, **900 BCE**
- Athenian noblemen convene on the Aeropagus, **800 BCE**
- Solon encourages participation of Athenian citizens in government, **590 BCE**

Legacy

- Athenian democracy elevates concepts of representative government
- Athenian democratic ideals influence the Age of Enlightenment
- Modern governments revere the Athenian democratic model

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31 OCTOBER, 1517

MARTIN LUTHER NAILS 95 THESES TO THE DOOR OF CASTLE CHURCH, WITTENBERG

Religious scholar Martin Luther sparked the Protestant Reformation with his criticism of the Catholic Church

Christian theologian Martin Luther sows the seeds of the Protestant Reformation when he nails his 95 Theses to the front door of the Castle Church of Wittenberg, Germany. Luther is vehemently opposed to the continuing sale of indulgences for the absolution of sin and recoils from the perceived corruption of the Roman Catholic Church, which is a major political force in Western civilisation as well.

Luther disagrees with the church's position that salvation could be achieved through 'good works'. He subscribes to the ancient perspective of St. Augustine that the Bible is the highest religious authority, rather than the officials of the church in Rome, and that only God can grant salvation through His holy grace.

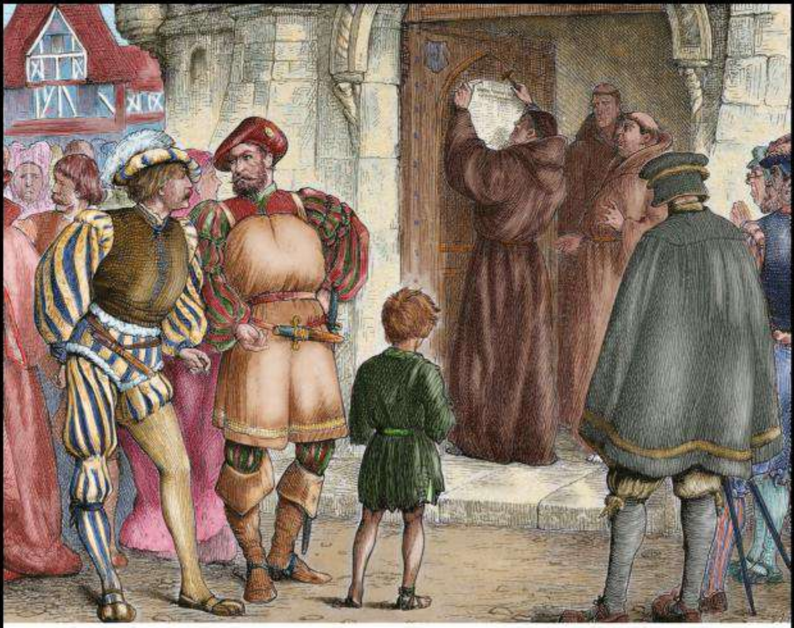
Luther rebuffs repeated efforts to coerce him into recanting. In 1521, he stands before the Diet of Worms and boldly responds, "Here I stand. God help me. I can do no other." Luther's actions ignite the Protestant Reformation, which reshapes the spiritual and political landscape of the Western world for centuries to come.

Origins

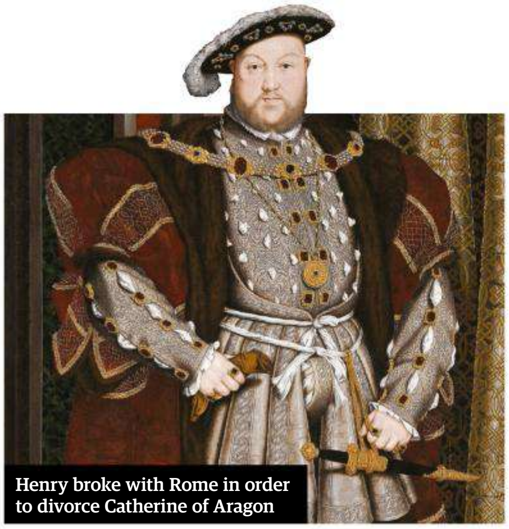
- Luther survives violent storm, **17 July, 1505**
- St. Peter's Basilica construction, supported by indulgences, begins in **8 April, 1506**
- Pope Leo X is crowned, **19 March, 1513**

Legacy

- Luther is condemned a heretic then excommunicated
- Much of northern Europe embraces Protestantism
- Reformation ideals gain support during the Enlightenment



Martin Luther nails his 95 Theses to the door of the Castle Church in Wittenberg. The event is considered the beginning of the Protestant Reformation



Henry broke with Rome in order to divorce Catherine of Aragon

FIRST ACT OF SUPREMACY

3 NOVEMBER, 1534

The First Act of Supremacy acknowledges King Henry VIII, rather than the pope, as head of the Church of England. The Acts of Supremacy are more of a political statement than a religious movement, although their initiation marks the beginning of the period called the English Reformation. Henry VIII is excommunicated from the Roman Catholic Church in 1538.

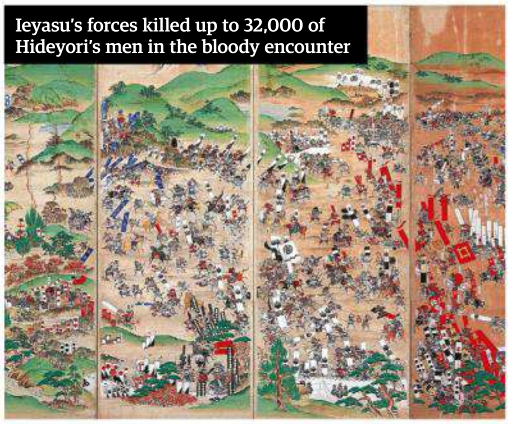
DEFEAT OF THE SPANISH ARMADA

29 JULY, 1588

Off the coast of Gravelines, France, an English naval force under Sir Francis Drake and Lord Charles Howard defeats the Spanish Armada, thought invincible by many observers. The defeat of the Armada thwarts the plans of Spanish King Philip II to conquer England and shifts the balance of power in Europe towards Queen Elizabeth I and her court.

BATTLE OF SEKIGAHARA 21 OCTOBER, 1600

The army of Tokugawa Ieyasu defeats the forces loyal to Toyotomi Hideyori, leading to the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate, which rules feudal Japan from Edo Castle on the site of modern-day Tokyo for the next 268 years. The period of Westernisation that follows during the late 19th century transforms Japan into a respected world power.



Ieyasu's forces killed up to 32,000 of Hideyori's men in the bloody encounter

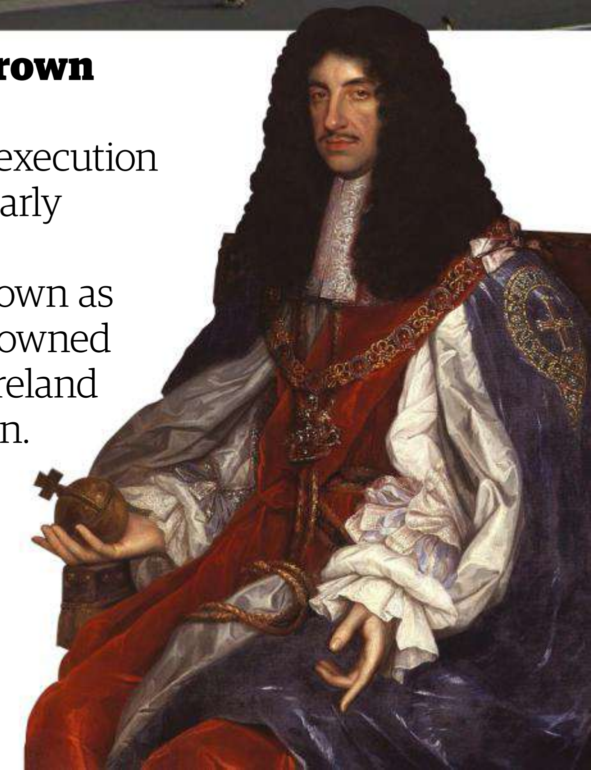
PETER THE GREAT ESTABLISHES ST. PETERSBURG 27 MAY, 1703

Peter the Great, Emperor of Russia, establishes the city that will serve as his "window on the West". A devotee of the Enlightenment, Peter turns his nation towards the West with political, social, military and economic reforms. The gleaming city becomes his capital in 1712, and his reign extends from 1682 to 1725.

Restoration of the British Crown

23 April, 1661

After a protracted civil war, the execution of King Charles I in 1649 and nearly two decades of Commonwealth government during a period known as the Interregnum, Charles II is crowned king of England, Scotland and Ireland at Westminster Abbey in London. During the Restoration, Charles II rules for the next 25 years and becomes one of the most popular kings of England.



17 DECEMBER, 1777

FRANCE RECOGNISES THE USA AS AN INDEPENDENT NATION

Benjamin Franklin secures critical financial and military support for the American Revolution

Benjamin Franklin, scientist, author, inventor, and American revolutionary arrives in France in the autumn of 1776 with a commission from the Continental Congress to secure a formal alliance with France, the long-time rival of Britain.

Representing the 13 colonies in North America that had recently declared themselves free and independent of British rule, Franklin plays a crucial role in negotiations that are ongoing for more than a year. Perhaps the best-known American in Europe, Franklin is received enthusiastically at the court of King Louis XVI and establishes warm relations with influential Frenchmen in political, scientific and social circles.

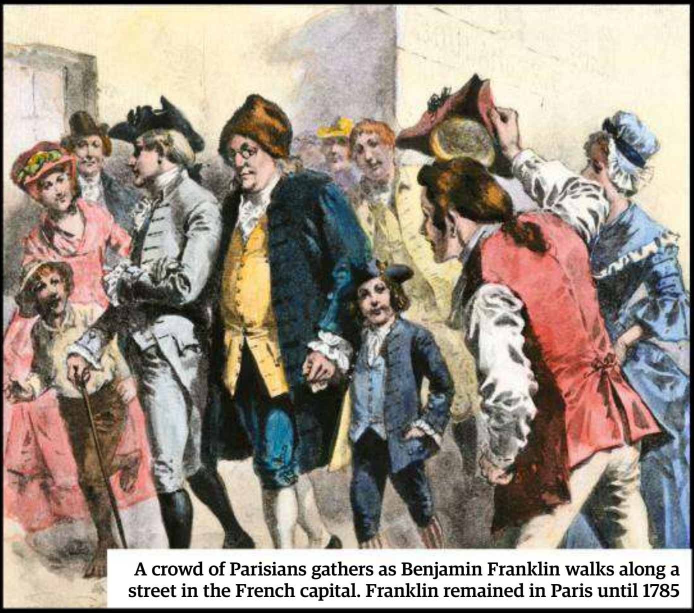
The French are hesitant to expand their support of the American Revolution beyond shipments of material until they are assured that the colonists have a reasonable chance of winning the war. Victory at the Battle of Saratoga in the autumn of 1777 provides enough assurance. Franklin successfully concludes treaties of friendship and alliance on February 6, 1778. France supplies 12,000 troops and a fleet of warships along with vital arms and gunpowder.

Origins

- Treaty of Paris ends French and Indian War, **10 February, 1763**
- Britain's North American colonies publish Declaration of Independence, **4 July, 1776**
- Benjamin Franklin sets sail for France, **26 October, 1776**

Legacy

- Treaties of Amity and Commerce and Alliance are signed
- Decisive French-American victory at Yorktown
- Britain recognises American independence in 1783



A crowd of Parisians gathers as Benjamin Franklin walks along a street in the French capital. Franklin remained in Paris until 1785

25 NOVEMBER, 1875

BRITAIN GAINS OWNERSHIP INTEREST IN SUEZ CANAL

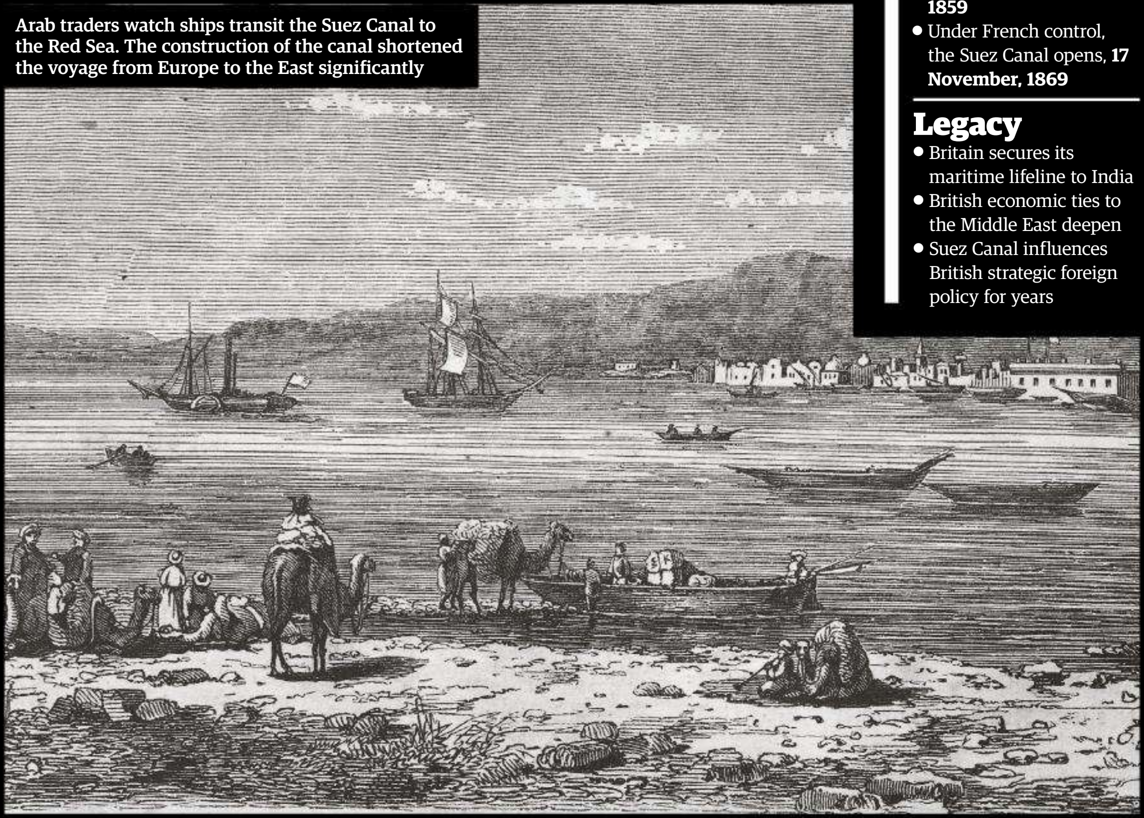
Ownership in Suez safeguarded the trade route to India and the Far East

"It is settled; you have it madam!" reports British Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli to Queen Victoria after concluding the purchase of an ownership interest in the Suez Canal from the Khedive of Egypt.

The canal, constructed by French engineering firms and still partially owned by the French, saves weeks of sailing time from Europe to India and the Far East by connecting the Mediterranean Sea to the Red Sea. By 1875, 80 percent of the shipping passing through it belongs to British concerns.

The weakening of the Ottoman Empire had threatened the security of the canal, and Britain's purchase of an ownership interest reinforces the nation's supremacy on the world's oceans. Disraeli arranges funding for the purchase from private financier Lionel de Rothschild instead of obtaining a loan from the Bank of England.

For the next century, the security of the canal and Britain's maritime connection to the Indian subcontinent and its colonies in the Far East heavily influences Britain's foreign policy.



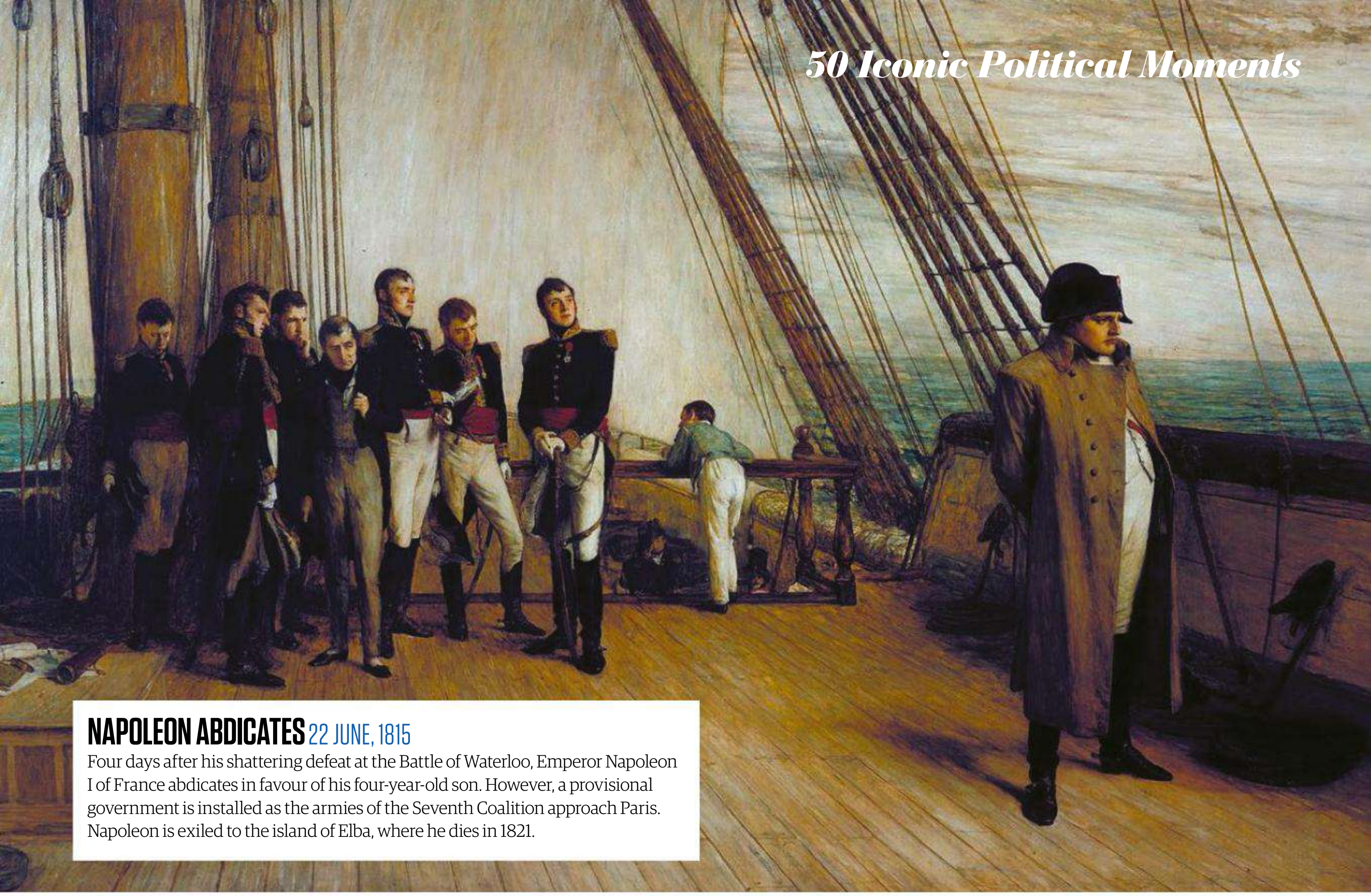
Arab traders watch ships transit the Suez Canal to the Red Sea. The construction of the canal shortened the voyage from Europe to the East significantly

Origins

- The Suez Canal Company is formed, **20 July, 1856**
- Construction on Suez Canal begins, **25 April, 1859**
- Under French control, the Suez Canal opens, **17 November, 1869**

Legacy

- Britain secures its maritime lifeline to India
- British economic ties to the Middle East deepen
- Suez Canal influences British strategic foreign policy for years



NAPOLEON ABDICATES 22 JUNE, 1815

Four days after his shattering defeat at the Battle of Waterloo, Emperor Napoleon I of France abdicates in favour of his four-year-old son. However, a provisional government is installed as the armies of the Seventh Coalition approach Paris. Napoleon is exiled to the island of Elba, where he dies in 1821.

PROCLAMATION OF THE KINGDOM OF ITALY 17 MARCH, 1861

Although years of conflict and unrest are yet to come, the Kingdom of Italy is proclaimed under King Victor Emmanuel II, the first king of a united Italy since the 6th century. The capital of the kingdom is moved from Florence to Rome a decade later in June 1871. Victor Emmanuel rules until 1878.

ASSASSINATION OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN

15 APRIL, 1865

While attending the play *Our American Cousin* at Ford's Theatre in Washington, D.C., President Abraham Lincoln is fatally shot by assassin John Wilkes Booth, a well-known actor of the day. The assassination of Lincoln plunges the United States into mourning and results in a much harsher period of reconstruction for the former Confederate states than Lincoln had envisioned.

TREATY OF FRANKFURT 10 MAY, 1871

The Treaty of Frankfurt ends the Franco-Prussian War with a resounding German victory following the siege and fall of Paris. As a result, the French Second Republic collapses, Germany annexes the long-disputed provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, and the unification of the German Empire is concluded in the same year.

TREATY OF PORTSMOUTH

5 SEPTEMBER, 1905

The Treaty of Portsmouth ends the Russo-Japanese War, a humiliating defeat for the Russian Empire and the first time a non-caucasian nation has defeated a traditional European power in an armed conflict. Japan emerges as a major military force in the Pacific and continues a policy of imperialism that eventually leads to war with the United States.

The Great White Fleet

16 December, 1907

As a show of global naval might and to prompt foreign powers to respect American territorial holdings, President Theodore Roosevelt sends 16 battleships of the US Navy and their escorts – divided into two squadrons – on a voyage around the world. With their hulls painted white, the armada sails the seas until 1909.

"THE LAMPS ARE GOING OUT…"

3 AUGUST, 1914

On the eve of Great Britain's entry into World War I, Foreign Secretary Sir Edward Grey comments to a friend: "The lamps are going out all over Europe. We shall not see them lit again in our lifetime." The words have been alluded to ever since as a prophetic vision of the horror of the coming conflict that would claim millions of lives.

KING EDWARD VIII ABDICATES FOR LOVE 11 DECEMBER, 1936

Upon the death of his father, King George V, Edward VIII assumes the British throne in January 1936. Before the end of the year, however, he abdicates in order to marry Wallis Simpson, an American divorcee. The event shakes the stability of the monarchy. Edward is succeeded by his brother, King George VI, who leads the nation through World War II.

DEATH OF PRESIDENT PAUL VON HINDENBURG

2 AUGUST, 1934

The last major impediment to Adolf Hitler's consolidation of power, President of Weimar Germany Paul von Hindenburg, an aging war hero, dies. Hitler swiftly abolishes the office of president and consolidates its authority with that of chancellor, which he already holds. The Nazi grip on the German government is solidified.

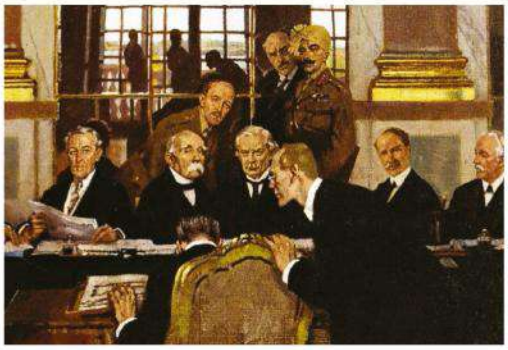
THE US ENTERS WORLD WAR I

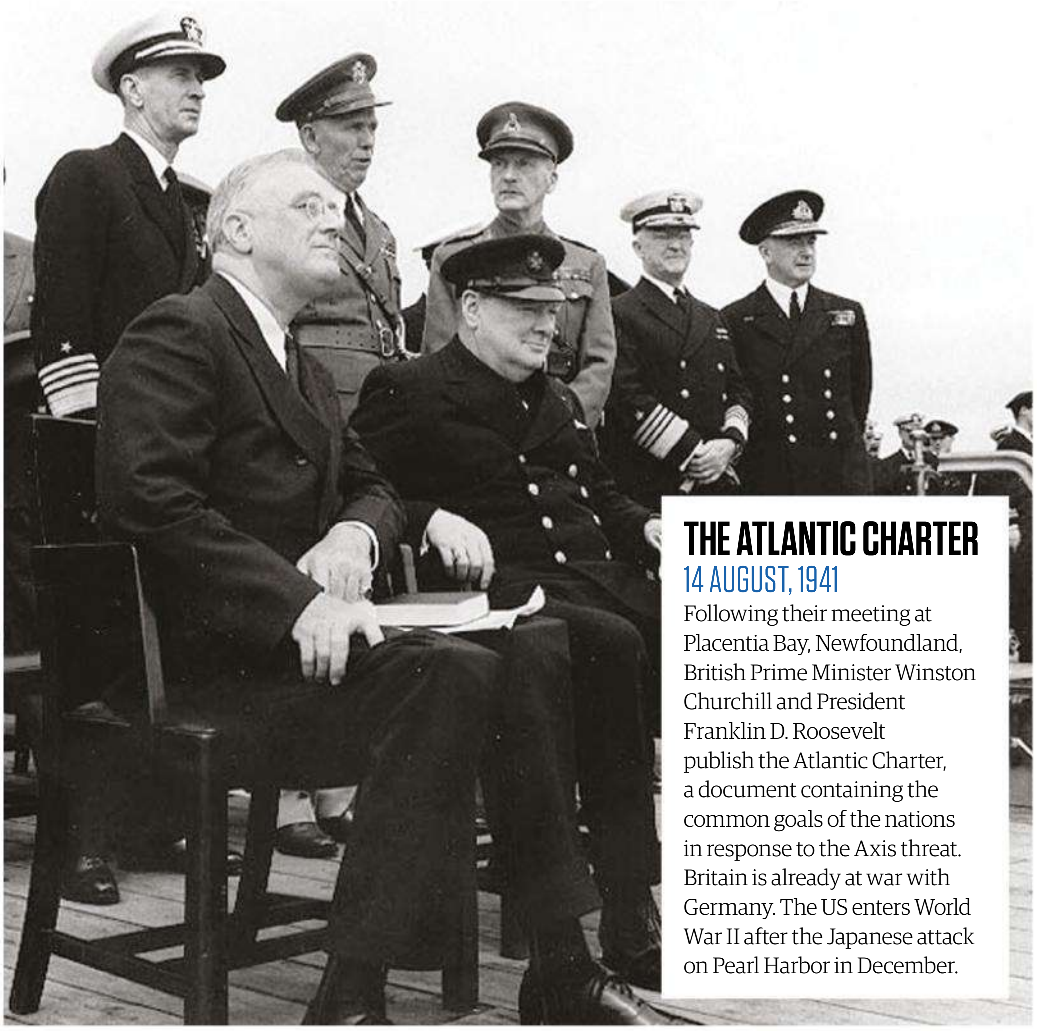
6 APRIL, 1917

Provoked by Germany's unrestricted submarine warfare in the Atlantic and the threat of the Zimmerman Telegram from German Foreign Minister Arthur Zimmerman to Mexico, inviting that nation to declare war on the U.S. and conclude a military alliance, the United States declares war on Germany and enters World War I after President Woodrow Wilson asks Congress for a declaration on April 2.

TREATY OF VERSAILLES 28 JUNE, 1919

The document that ends the catastrophe of World War I essentially places the blame for the bloodshed on Germany, crippling the nation's economy, restricting its armed forces and saddling it with immense reparations payments. Signed in the Hall of Mirrors at the Palace of Versailles, the treaty's harsh terms are a major cause of World War II, which erupts 20 years later.





THE ATLANTIC CHARTER

14 AUGUST, 1941

Following their meeting at Placentia Bay, Newfoundland, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill and President Franklin D. Roosevelt publish the Atlantic Charter, a document containing the common goals of the nations in response to the Axis threat. Britain is already at war with Germany. The US enters World War II after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in December.

30 SEPTEMBER, 1938

CHAMBERLAIN PROCLAIMS "PEACE FOR OUR TIME"

British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain brings home hollow promises after the infamous Munich Conference with Hitler

In the hope of avoiding a catastrophic world war, British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain and French leader Édouard Daladier travel to meet with Adolf Hitler, Chancellor of Nazi Germany, in Munich in the autumn of 1938.

Czechoslovakia is the latest target of Hitler's aggressive occupation and annexation of neighbouring European territory, and his threat to invade the country unless certain demands are met results in the conference, during which Hitler achieves his desired results, signing a virtually meaningless document that Chamberlain hails as an assurance of "Peace for our time."

The doctrine of appeasement, as Chamberlain's approach has been labelled, has been criticised roundly by historians for decades, and instead of assuring peace, more likely emboldened Hitler to occupy all of Czechoslovakia in the coming months and ignite World War II within a year.

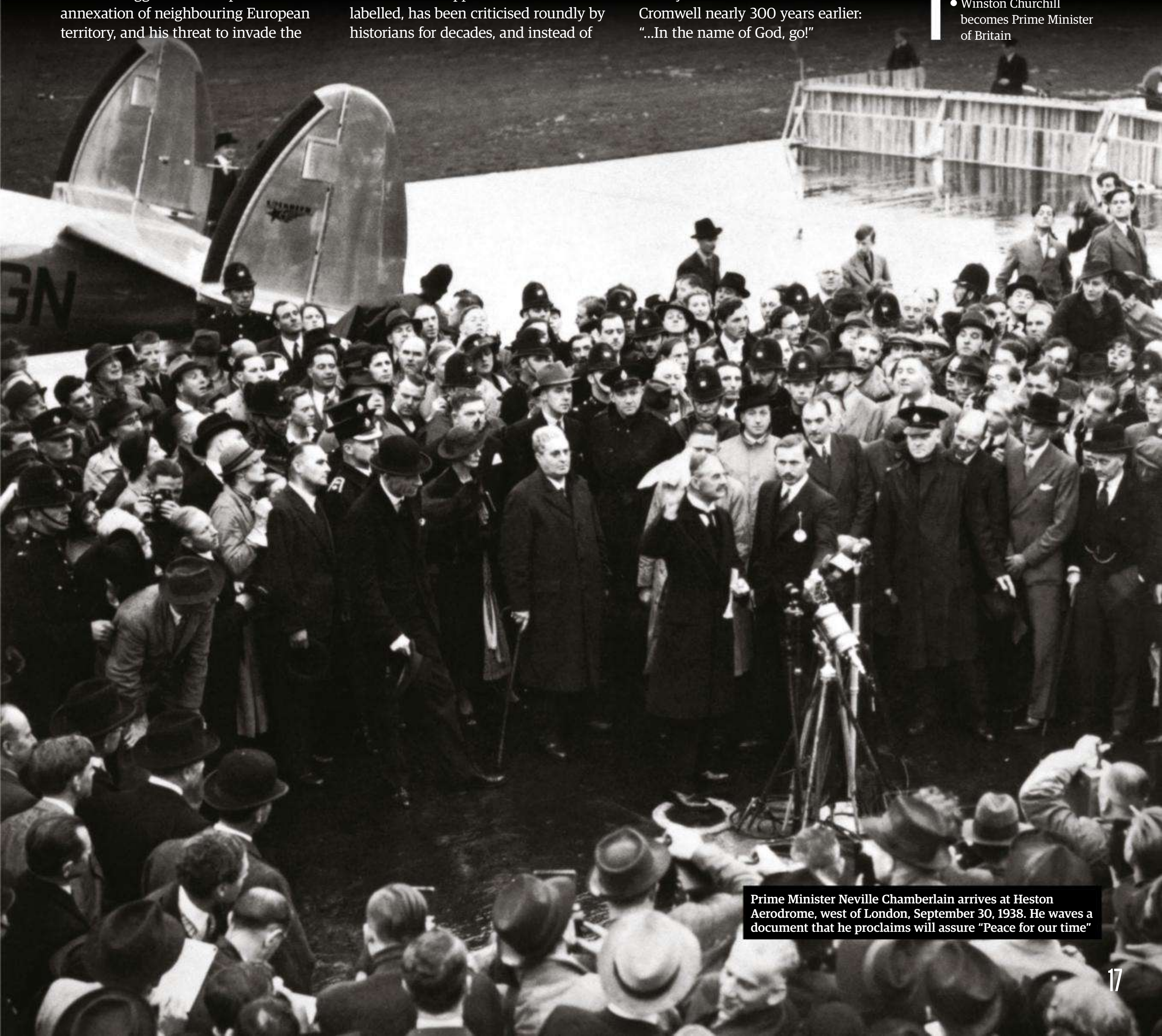
As the Allies suffer military setbacks early in the war and Chamberlain's position crumbles, British MP Leo Amery echoes the words of Oliver Cromwell nearly 300 years earlier: "…In the name of God, go!"

Origins

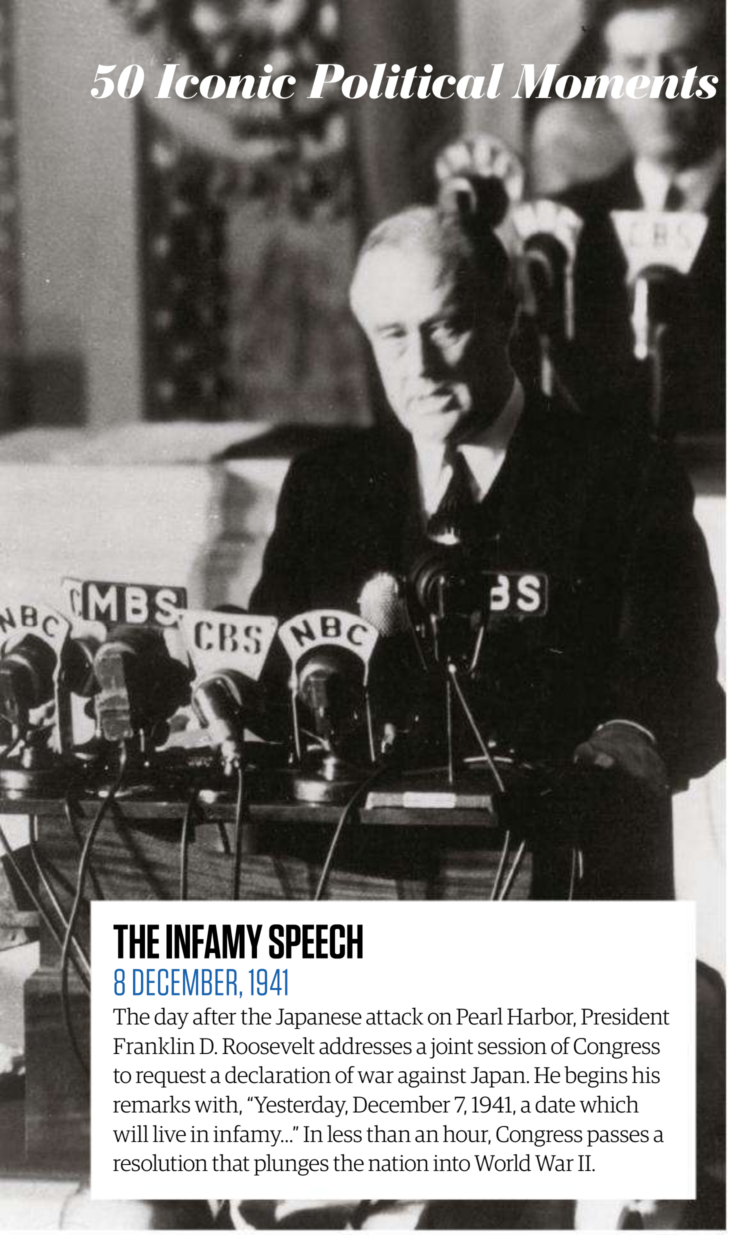
- Adolf Hitler is named Chancellor of Germany, **30 January, 1933**
- German troops reoccupy the Rhineland, **7 March, 1936**
- Nazi Germany annexes Austria, **12 March, 1938**

Legacy

- Germany occupies all of Czechoslovakia within six months
- Germany invades Poland, sparking World War II
- Winston Churchill becomes Prime Minister of Britain



Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain arrives at Heston Aerodrome, west of London, September 30, 1938. He waves a document that he proclaims will assure "Peace for our time"



THE INFAMY SPEECH

8 DECEMBER, 1941

The day after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, President Franklin D. Roosevelt addresses a joint session of Congress to request a declaration of war against Japan. He begins his remarks with, "Yesterday, December 7, 1941, a date which will live in infamy..." In less than an hour, Congress passes a resolution that plunges the nation into World War II.

Indian Independence Act 18 July, 1947

Royal assent to the Indian Independence Act creates the independent dominions of India and Pakistan. The partition becomes effective on 15 August, and widespread unrest follows as Hindus and Muslims flee across the border. India and Pakistan later repeal the act as they march towards total independence.

NAZI GERMANY SURRENDERS UNCONDITIONALLY 7 MAY, 1945

In a schoolhouse in Reims, France, Nazi Germany surrenders unconditionally to the Allies, ending World War II in Europe. General Dwight D. Eisenhower, Supreme Commander Allied Expeditionary Force, sends a message: "The mission of this Allied force was fulfilled at 0241, local time, May 7, 1945." The Soviet Union does not recognise the surrender and requires a second ceremony in Berlin.

UNITED NATIONS CHARTER 26 JUNE, 1945

The charter of the United Nations is signed by representatives of 50 countries in San Francisco and goes into effect four months later in October 1945. The document establishes the principles of the body and its structure. The five permanent members of the security council include the United States, Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and China.

MAO TSE-TUNG ASSUMES POWER IN CHINA

1 OCTOBER, 1949

Mao Tse-tung proclaims the People's Republic of China following a protracted war against Nationalist forces under Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, who flees the mainland and establishes a government on the island of Formosa. Mao establishes the rule of the Communist Party of China and initiates ruthless reforms.

TRUMAN FIRES MACARTHUR 11 APRIL, 1951

Fearing the widening of the Korean War, President Harry Truman relieves General Douglas MacArthur of command of US forces in Korea. Egotistical and outspoken, MacArthur has previously criticised the Truman administration and failed to recognise the probability of intervention from Communist China, which occurred in the autumn of 1950. By dismissing MacArthur, Truman reaffirms civilian control of the US military.

KRUSHCHEV BELLOWS

18 NOVEMBER, 1956

During a reception for ambassadors from several Western countries at the Polish embassy in Moscow, Soviet Premier Nikita Krushchev remarks forcefully, "We will bury you!" Representatives of 12 NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organisation) member countries and Israel leave the room. Krushchev was later removed from power on 14 October, 1964.

16 JULY, 1945

THE ATOMIC BOMB IS SUCCESSFULLY TESTED

The successful detonation of the atomic bomb ushers in the nuclear age

At 5:29 a.m. on July 16, 1945, the world's first successful detonation of an atomic bomb takes place in the desert of New Mexico at a site code named Trinity. The blast is reported to have a yield of 20 kilotons of TNT and is the culmination of a top-secret US and Allied effort known as the Manhattan Project.

A team of international scientists, some of whom had fled the oppression of Nazi Germany and fascist Italy, had worked for more than three years to produce the device. World War II is in its sixth year, and though Germany has now surrendered, it appears that Japan intends to fight on.

Under the supervision of nuclear physicist J. Robert Oppenheimer of the University of California, and Major General Leslie Groves of the US Army, the scientific team labours secretly at the Los Alamos Laboratory in New Mexico. Meanwhile, work with the element plutonium is conducted at reactor facilities in Hanford, Washington, and Oak Ridge, Tennessee. Eventually, two functional atomic bombs are produced. Little Boy is a gun-type fission weapon that unleashes a sustained nuclear reaction upon detonation using U-235, a uranium isotope. Fat Man is an implosion weapon that generates power via a solid plutonium core.

On orders from President Harry S Truman, Little Boy is dropped on the Japanese city of Hiroshima on August 6, 1945, with devastating effect. Three days later, Fat Man is dropped on the city of Nagasaki with similar results. In both instances the number of those who are killed outright or die later of radiation exposure exceeds 100,000. Japan is compelled to surrender, ending World War II and ushering in the nuclear age.

Even as the development of the atomic bomb progresses, a debate is underway within the scientific community as to the moral implications of its use. That controversial debate persists to this day.

A mushroom cloud billows more than 20,000 feet into the sky above Hiroshima (right) as the atomic bomb devastates its first target in August 1945

Origins

- Albert Einstein and Leo Szilard urge US nuclear research, **2 August, 1939**
- Enrico Fermi supervises first sustained nuclear chain reaction, **2 December, 1942**
- Franck Report requests open demonstration of atomic bomb, **11 June, 1945**

Legacy

- The possibility of nuclear war becomes real
- The Cold War features a nuclear arms race
- Nuclear proliferation threatens global stability

Cuban Missile Crisis Ends 28 October, 1962

The closest that the United States and the Soviet Union come to an exchange of nuclear weapons during the Cold War ends with concessions on both sides, particularly the Soviets, who agree to dismantle intermediate-range nuclear missiles that have been shipped to Cuba, just 90 miles from the mainland of the United States.

'ICH BIN EIN BERLINER!'

26 JUNE, 1963

Five months before his assassination, President John F. Kennedy travels to West Germany and is warmly welcomed. During a speech in west Berlin he declares that free individuals all over the world are citizens of the divided city of Berlin. He proclaims that he takes pride in the words, "Ich bin ein Berliner!"

JOHNSON ENDS CAMPAIGN SPECULATION 31 MARCH, 1968

In the midst of US involvement in the Vietnam War, President Lyndon Johnson, who has completed the term of assassinated President John F. Kennedy and won a landslide victory over Senator Barry Goldwater in 1964, tells a national television audience, "I shall not seek, and I will not accept, the nomination of my party for another term as your President."

THE LAST US TROOPS LEAVE VIETNAM

29 MARCH, 1973

Two months after the signing of the Paris Peace Accords, the last US troops leave South Vietnam. Within two years communist forces conquer all of Vietnam, ending a conflict that has persisted since 1945. Following the failure of France to maintain control of its colony in Southeast Asia, the United States has been directly involved militarily in the conflict for eight years.

REUNIFICATION OF GERMANY

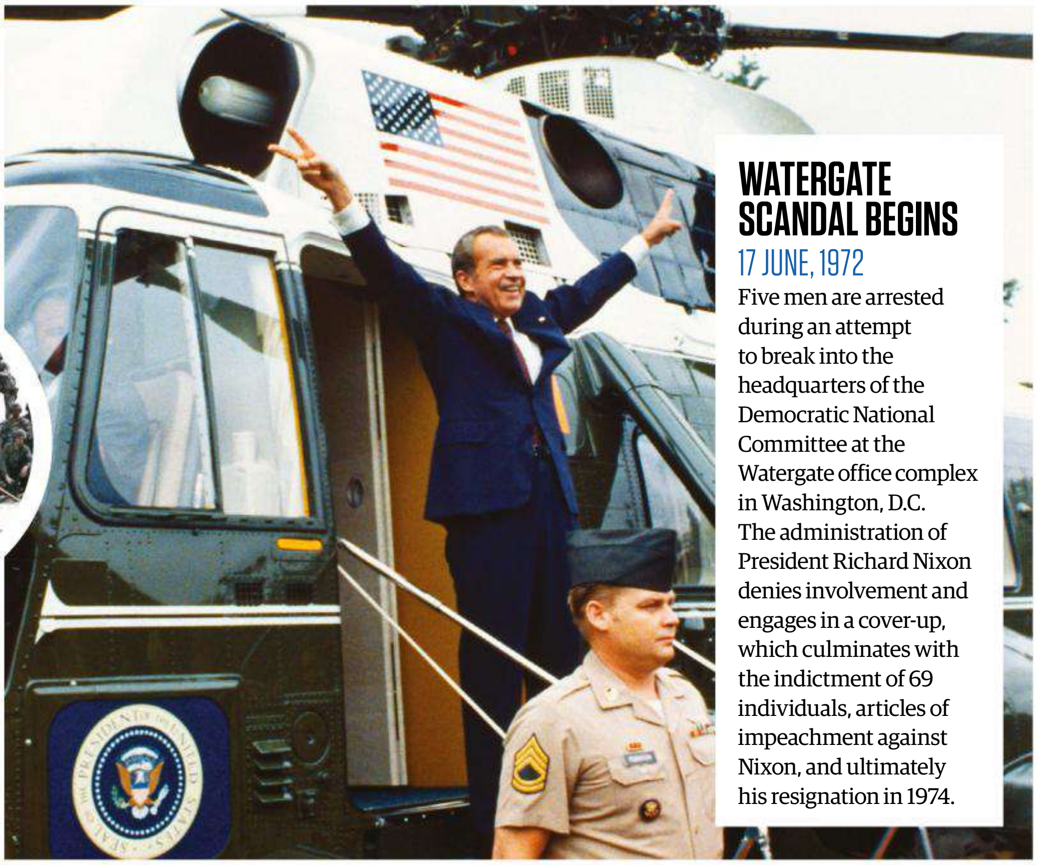
3 OCTOBER, 1990

With the Cold War at an end and half a century of partition between the democratic West and the communist East, Germany is reunited as a nation only months after the Berlin Wall tumbles down. The unification process actually results in an enlarged West German state that retains membership in NATO.

GULF WAR VICTORY

FEBRUARY 28, 1991

Following the invasion of neighbouring Kuwait by the Iraqi Army of dictator Saddam Hussein, a multi-nation coalition executes a build-up of formidable military forces, known as Operation Desert Shield, and launches an extensive aerial bombardment campaign. This is followed by a ground war, Operation Desert Storm, which forcibly ejects the Iraqis from Kuwait with a decisive victory. Saddam Hussein remains in power in Baghdad.



WATERGATE SCANDAL BEGINS

17 JUNE, 1972

Five men are arrested during an attempt to break into the headquarters of the Democratic National Committee at the Watergate office complex in Washington, D.C. The administration of President Richard Nixon denies involvement and engages in a cover-up, which culminates with the indictment of 69 individuals, articles of impeachment against Nixon, and ultimately his resignation in 1974.

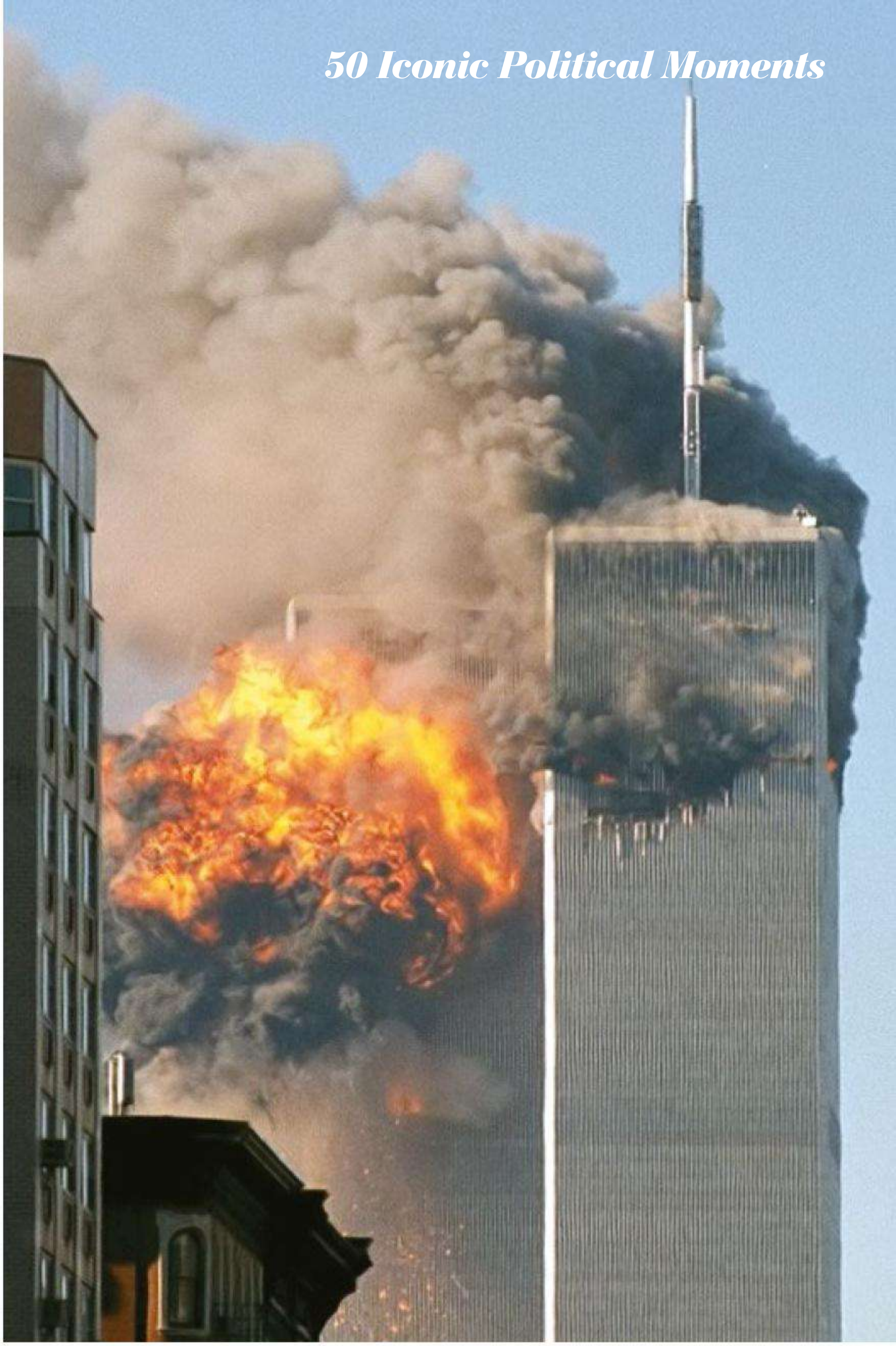
U.S. AND COALITION FORCES INVADE IRAQ 20 MARCH, 2003

Alarmed by the ruthlessness of Iraqi dictator Saddam Hussein and his ruling Baath Party, along with reports that Saddam possesses weapons of mass destruction, the United States leads a coalition of military forces in an invasion of Iraq that topples the dictator within six weeks of fighting. However, the destabilisation of the country sparks a long and bloody insurgency.

MAASTRICHT TREATY INTEGRATES EUROPE 1 NOVEMBER, 1993

The Maastricht Treaty, signed by the members of the European Community in February 1992, comes into effect, establishing the three-pillar structure that is designed to integrate the economies and social structure of member countries. These include the European Communities, Common Foreign and Security Policy, and Police and Judicial Cooperation in Criminal Matters pillars. It also installs the Euro as the common currency.

De Europese Raad
vergaderde in het Gouvernement
op 9 en 10 december 1991
Het Verdrag van Maastricht
werd hier getekend
op 7 februari 1992



Terrorism on 9-11 11 September, 2001

Islamic terrorists under the influence of Al-Qaeda and its leader, Osama bin Laden, hijack aircraft and fly them into the twin towers of the World Trade Center in New York City and the Pentagon, seat of the US defence establishment in Washington, D.C. A fourth plane crashes into a field in Shanksville, Pennsylvania. The attacks claim the lives of more than 3,000 people, and in the aftermath President George W. Bush declares a "War on Terror".

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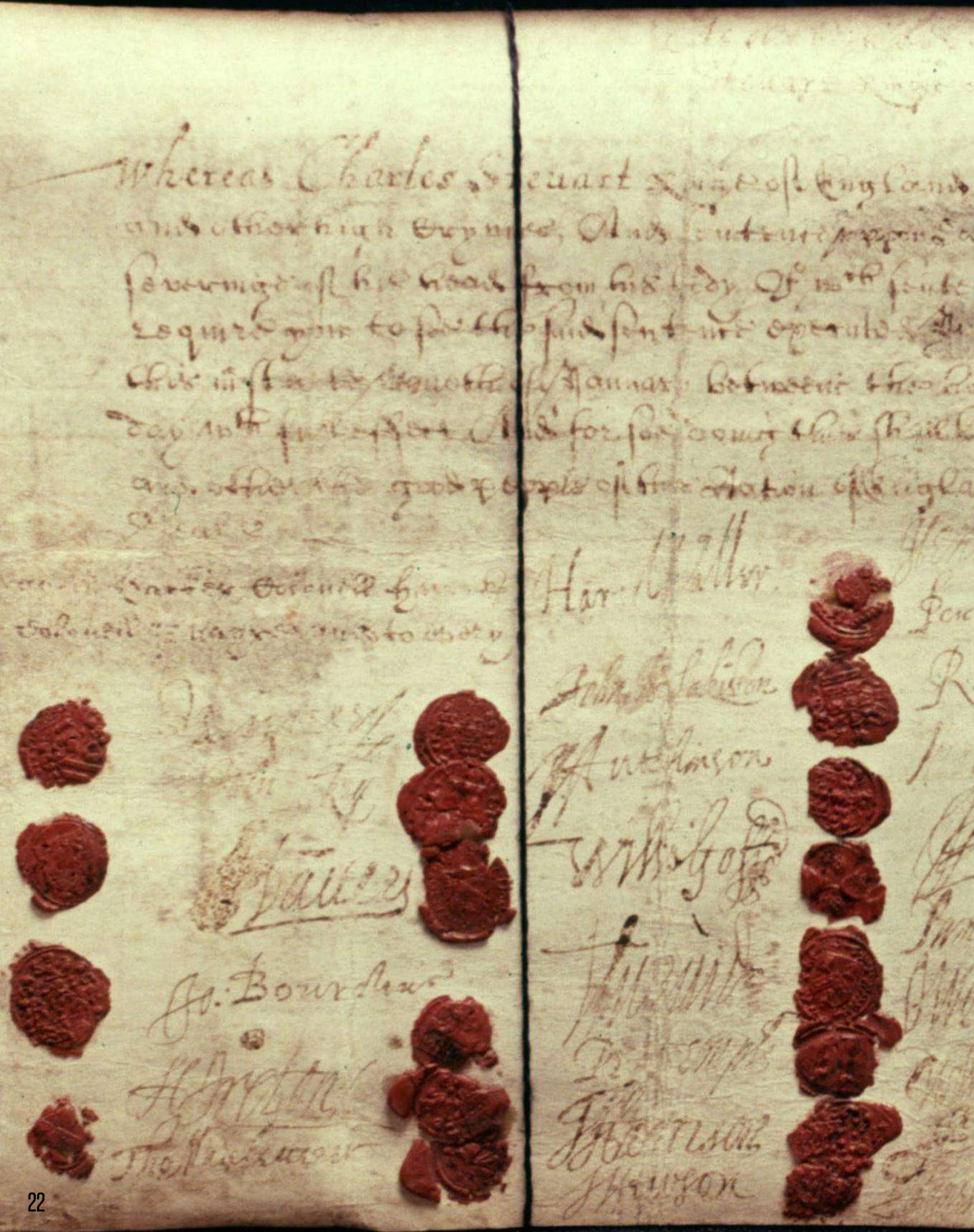

Whereas Charles Steuart Kinge of England
and other high Crymes, And sentence uppon
severinge of his head from his body Of wch sente
require you to see the said sentence executed
this instante moneth of January betweene the
day wth full effect And for soe doing this shall
and other the good people of this Nation of Engla
Seales

Francis Hacker Colonell Hu
Colonell Phray and to every

Jo: Bourchier
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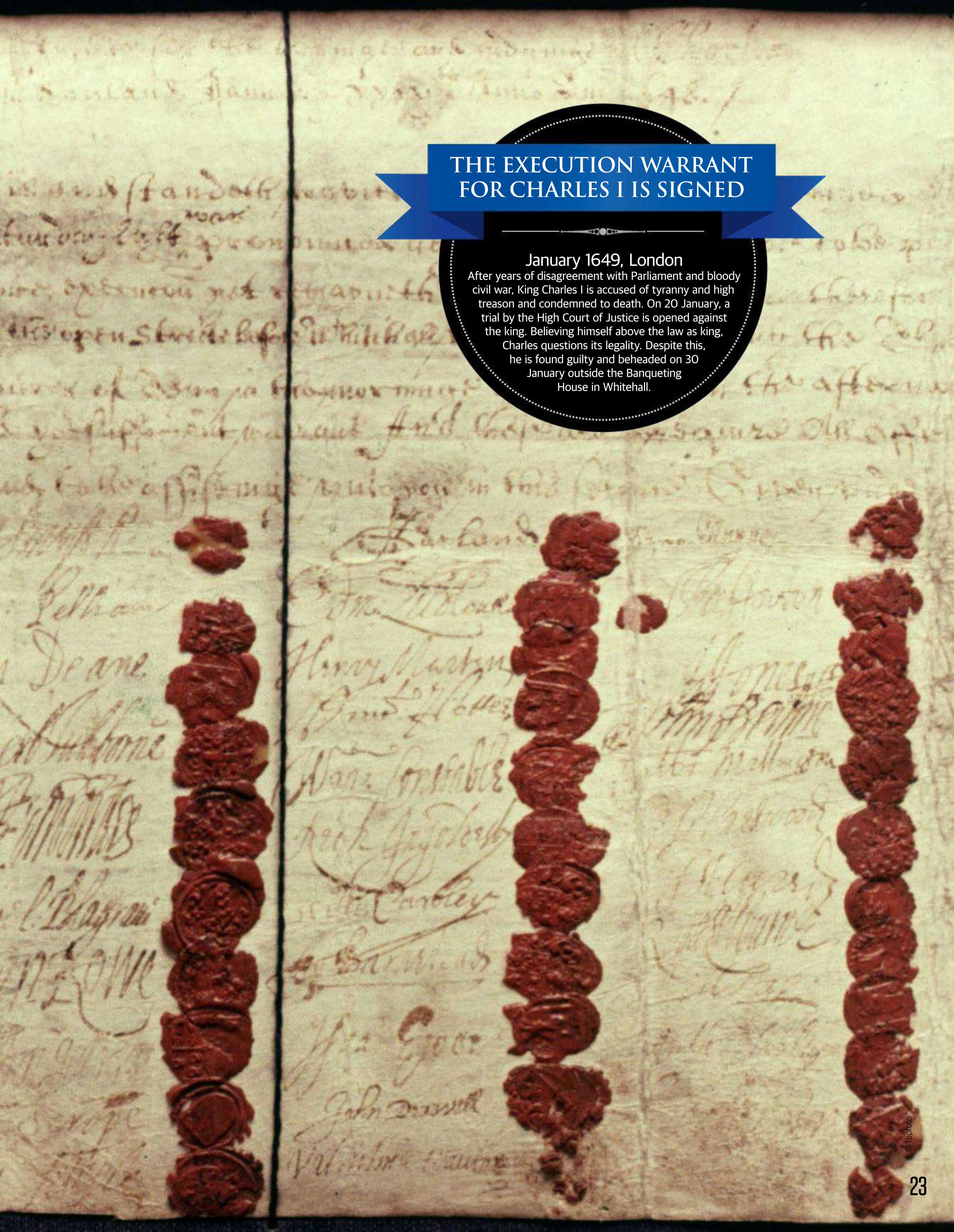
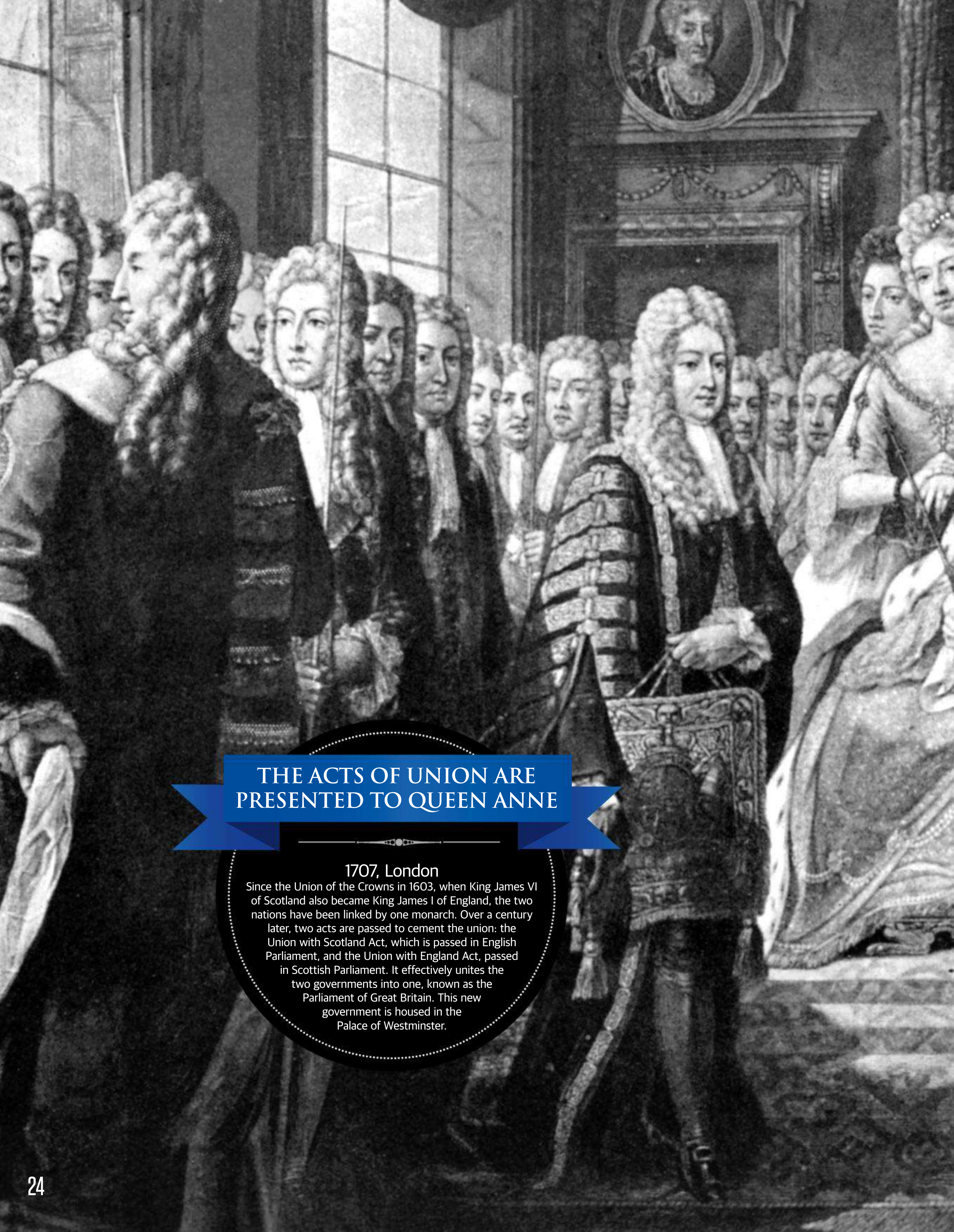


THE EXECUTION WARRANT FOR CHARLES I IS SIGNED

January 1649, London

After years of disagreement with Parliament and bloody civil war, King Charles I is accused of tyranny and high treason and condemned to death. On 20 January, a trial by the High Court of Justice is opened against the king. Believing himself above the law as king, Charles questions its legality. Despite this, he is found guilty and beheaded on 30 January outside the Banqueting House in Whitehall.

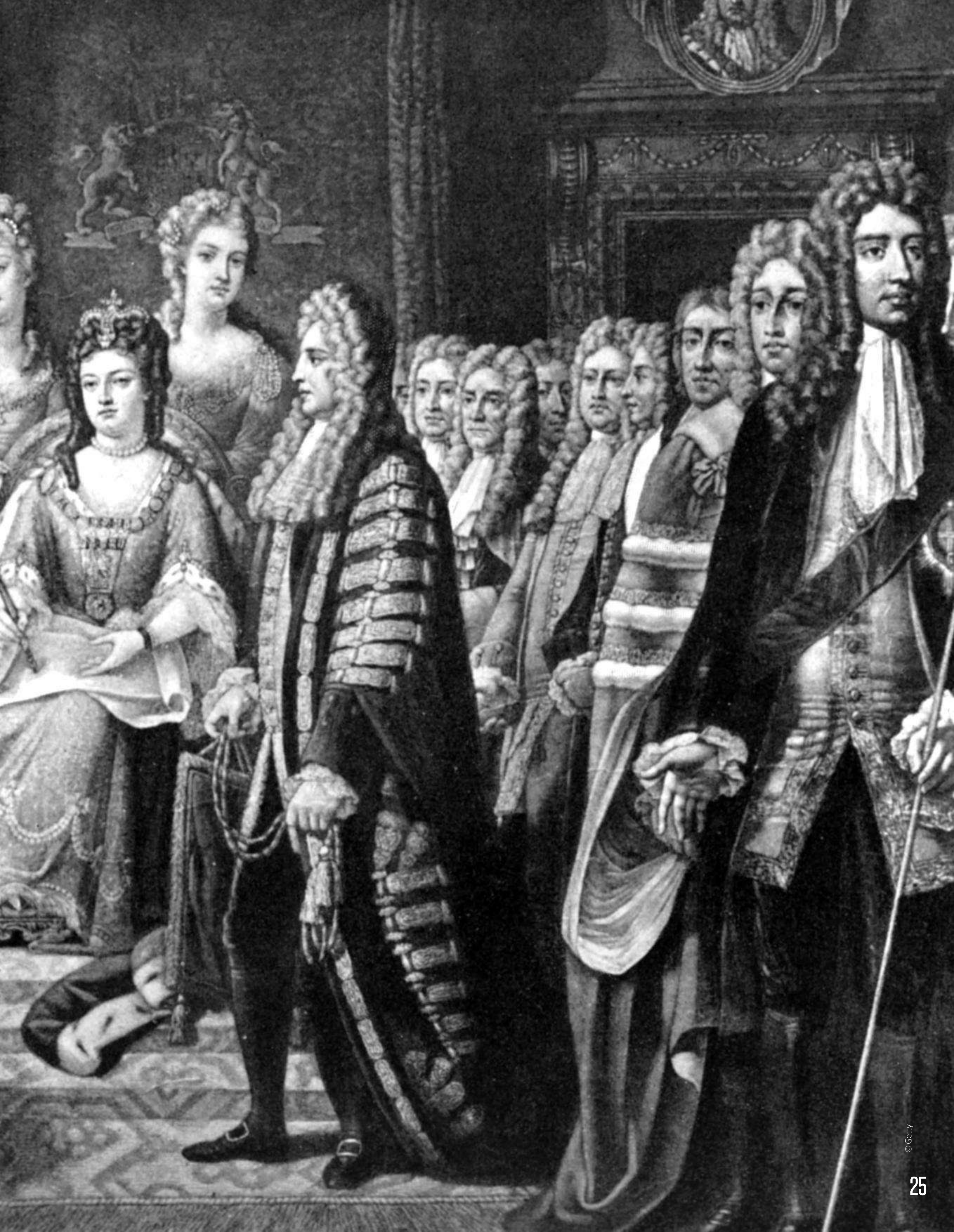
© Topfoto



THE ACTS OF UNION ARE PRESENTED TO QUEEN ANNE

1707, London

Since the Union of the Crowns in 1603, when King James VI of Scotland also became King James I of England, the two nations have been linked by one monarch. Over a century later, two acts are passed to cement the union: the Union with Scotland Act, which is passed in English Parliament, and the Union with England Act, passed in Scottish Parliament. It effectively unites the two governments into one, known as the Parliament of Great Britain. This new government is housed in the Palace of Westminster.

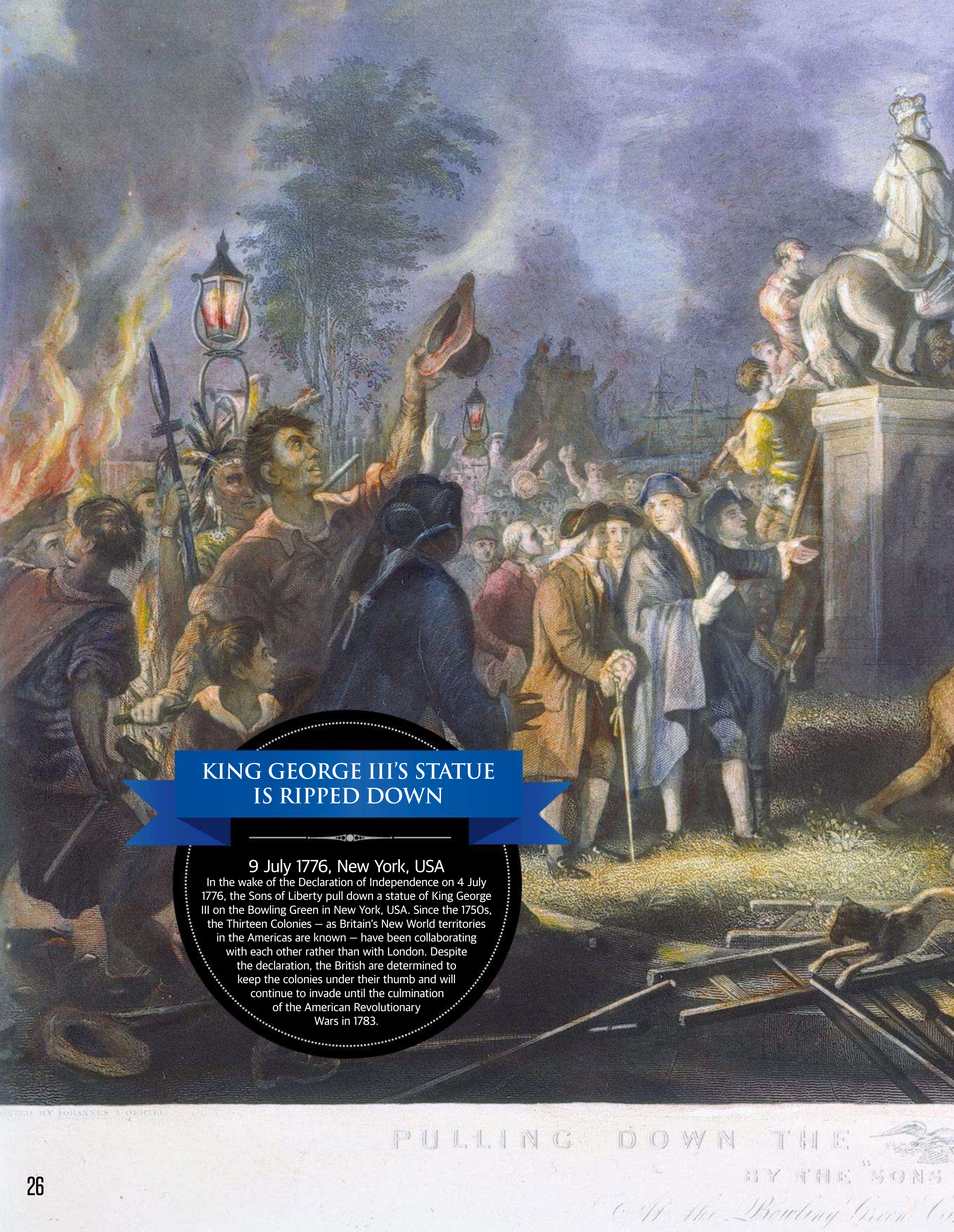


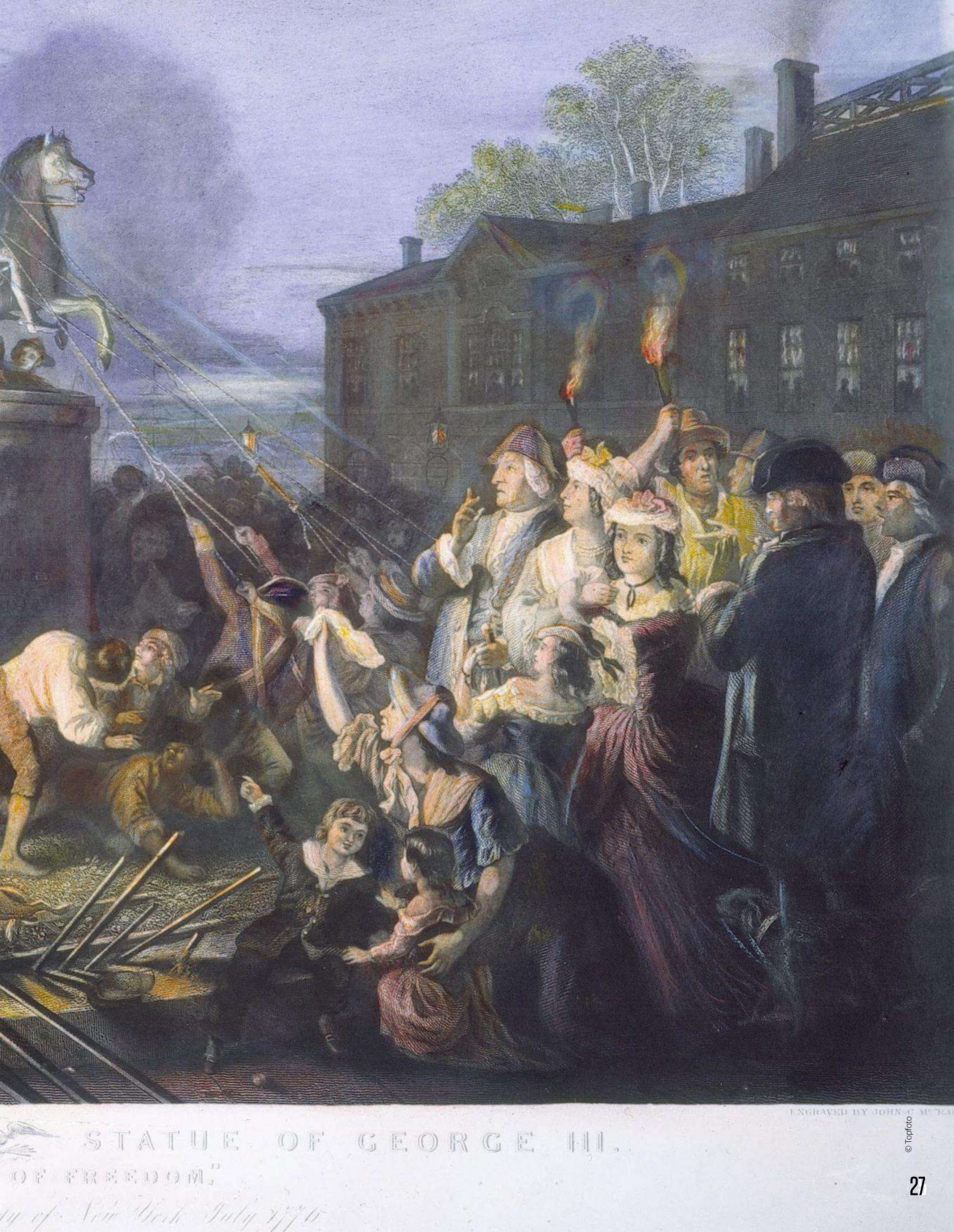
© Getty

KING GEORGE III'S STATUE IS RIPPED DOWN

9 July 1776, New York, USA

In the wake of the Declaration of Independence on 4 July 1776, the Sons of Liberty pull down a statue of King George III on the Bowling Green in New York, USA. Since the 1750s, the Thirteen Colonies – as Britain's New World territories in the Americas are known – have been collaborating with each other rather than with London. Despite the declaration, the British are determined to keep the colonies under their thumb and will continue to invade until the culmination of the American Revolutionary Wars in 1783.


STED BY JOHANNES A. OERTEL
PULLING DOWN THE
BY THE "SONS
At the Bowling Green Ci


ENGRAVED BY JOHN C Mc RA
STATUE OF GEORGE III.
OF FREEDOM,"
ty of New York July 1776

© Topfoto

GEORGE WASHINGTON IS INAUGURATED AS PRESIDENT

30 April 1789, New York, USA

After serving as Commander-in-Chief of the Continental Army during the American Revolutionary War, George Washington is sworn in as the first president of the United States of America. With this ceremony in front of Federal Hall in New York City, the executive branch of the US government officially begins operation, and what is commonly cited as the most powerful office in the world is born. Washington would go on to serve a second four-year term before being succeeded by John Adams in 1797.

In his final will Washington freed all his slaves

THE FIRST PRESIDENT WASHINGTON

Today George Washington is hailed as the father of the USA, but his journey to legendary hero was a perilous and difficult one

Long Island was supposed to be a success. The enemy was stronger and greater in number but the rebels had got there first. The commander had prepared everything for his foe's arrival in New York, strengthening his batteries and placing his generals perfectly. But the British had broken through. First Sullivan fell, then Stirling, and the commander could only watch as the lives of his brave men were brutally wiped away. Knowing all was lost he ordered his men to retreat before the carnage could reach them. As relentless rain pelted down he used the cover of darkness to help conceal his soldiers as they climbed into every available boat he could get his hands on. He waited until the last man was on board before he boarded himself. As the boat drew away the commander looked back through the thick fog that had descended over the bay. The mist had concealed them from the British, his men were safe, but Brooklyn had been lost.

This is not the story of a failed general, forgotten by the history books, but instead that of the most glorified and worshipped president in US history - George Washington. Just as his men were hidden by the fog that grim morning in Brooklyn, today Washington himself is cloaked and obscured by layers of myths and legends. He has become an almost messianic figure in the United States, a legend of justice and freedom, a brilliant commander who led his underdog army to the greatest victory in US history. But as with most legends, the stories are not always true. Far from being a brilliant military strategist, Washington actually lost more battles than he won. He was no Alexander or Caesar, but an entirely different kind of hero altogether - one who persevered in the face of devastating failure for his men and country.

Making History

3 reasons why Washington is considered the USA's greatest leader

1 Virtue

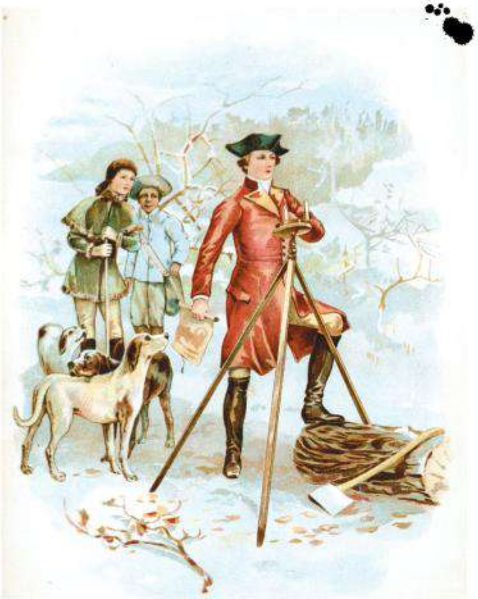
Washington twice gave up the chance of ultimate power. First at the end of the Revolutionary War when he surrendered his role as commander in chief, and again when he refused to rule as president for a third term. When George III was presented with the idea of Washington doing this, he said, "If he does that he will be the greatest man in the world."

2 Commitment to country

Washington did not become involved in the hostile arguments and squabbling of political debates, but instead acted as a peacekeeper between the groups. A true non-partisan, his primary aim was always the betterment of the country, rather than any personal gain.

3 Persistence

Washington was not the most gifted military leader; he suffered multiple losses and personal humiliations, but his determination to persevere in spite of repeated setbacks inspired his soldiers to do the same, which resulted in him creating one of the most celebrated underdog success stories in world history.



Born on 22 February 1732, George Washington was the son of a slave-owning tobacco planter. George received a mixed education from a variety of tutors, and plans for him to join the British Royal Navy were cut short when his mother objected. Fate instead led Washington to become a surveyor, and he travelled for two years surveying land in the Culpeper, Frederick and Augusta counties. This position began a lifelong interest in landholdings, and he purchased his first piece of land as soon as his sizable income filled his pockets. And when his older brother died in 1752, Washington inherited not only his father's vast lands, but also the position of major in the Virginia militia.

It would not be long until Washington's natural leadership and drive would send him straight into the heat of battle. At a staggering 188 centimetres (6'2") tall, the young man towered above his contemporaries, and Virginia's Lieutenant General Robert Dinwiddie saw fit to use his imposing but inspiring nature to try to persuade the French to remove themselves from land claimed by Britain. When they refused, Washington returned with a small force and attacked the French post at Fort Duquesne, killing the commander and nine men and taking the others as prisoners, all in 15 minutes. The event had huge international implications, and Great Britain and France began to pump forces into North America – The French and Indian War had begun. In a matter of minutes the name Washington became synonymous with three things – bravery, daring and recklessness.

Washington was rewarded for his quick thinking by being appointed commander in chief and colonel of the Virginia Regiment, the first full-time American military unit. With command of a thousand soldiers, Washington was tasked with defending Virginia's frontier, and he demonstrated his resolve and forthright approach as his unit engaged in 20 battles over 12 months. But his reckless attitude and inexperience was demonstrated when his unit exchanged friendly fire with another British force, killing 14 men.

His time commanding an army had taught Washington many things – how to bring the best out of his men, the importance of stamina and bravery, as well as discipline and training. It had also given him valuable insight into the British military tactics, and his struggles in dealing with government officials convinced him that a national government was the only way forward. However, when Washington retired from service in 1758, as far as he was concerned his time on the battlefield was over.

> "He was no Alexander or Caesar, but an entirely different kind of hero altogether"

In 1759 Washington married the intelligent and wealthy Martha Dandridge Custis and together with her two children they moved to the plantation of Mount Vernon. Enjoying the newly inherited wealth from his marriage, Washington was now one of Virginia's wealthiest men and he concentrated on expanding and making the most out of his plantation. Little did he know that revolution was bubbling, and soon he would find himself back on the battlefield in what would become the most famous war in American history.

Washington wasn't the most likely of revolutionary leaders; although he opposed the controversial Stamp Act of 1765, during the early stirrings of revolution he was actually opposed to the colonies declaring independence. It wasn't until the passing of the Townshend acts of 1767 that he took an active role in the resistance. In an act of rebellion he encouraged the people of Virginia to boycott English goods until the acts were repealed. However, when the Intolerable acts were passed in 1774, Washington decided that more forthright action needed to be taken.

Passionate and charismatic, Washington was an obvious choice to attend the First Continental Congress. Although the delegates appealed to the crown to revoke the intolerable acts, they didn't even make a dink in the steely British armour, and a Second Continental Congress was called the following year.

A lot had changed in a year, and Washington too had undergone something of a transformation. The battles at Lexington and Concord had shown the colonies that they were capable of taking on the might of the British, and when Washington arrived in Pennsylvania for the state meeting dressed head to toe in military gear, it sent a strong message: he was prepared for war. So was Congress. It formed the Continental Army on 14 June 1775 and it needed a leader. Reluctant and somewhat modest,

The March To Revolution

Follow the path leading to the greatest war in American history

French and Indian War

The French and Indian War was part of a much longer conflict between Great Britain and France, known as the Seven Years War. The war was fought in the north of North America between the colonies of the two powers, ending with France losing its territory in North America. However, funding the war created a huge national debt in Britain and gave France a good reason to support American independence.

Stamp Act

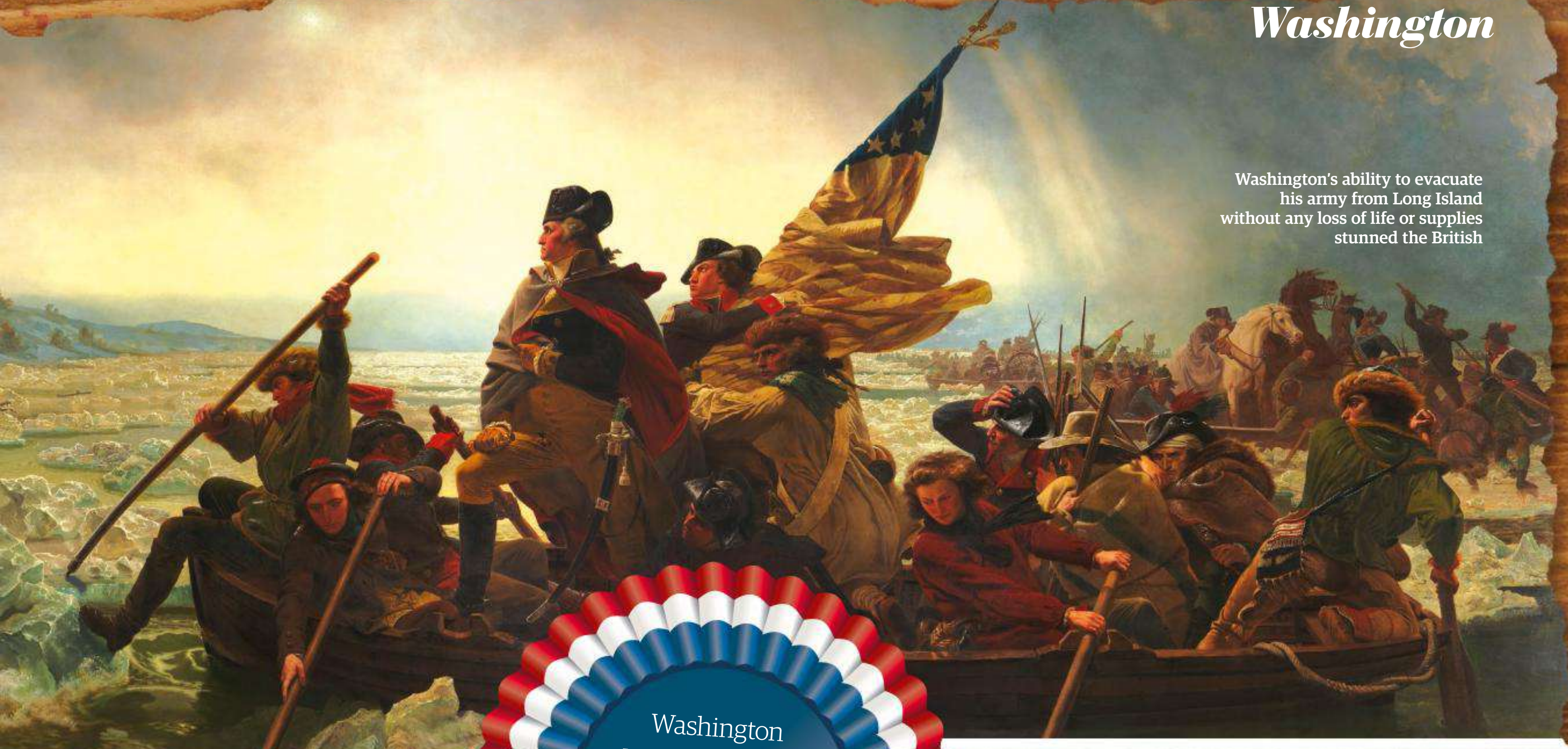
The resulting national debt of the Seven Years War in Britain had reached £130 million by 1764. Britain also needed a way to pay for its army in North America and decided the colonies should subsidise it. The Stamp Act forced citizens to pay taxes on documents and paper goods and was immediately unpopular as it was carried out without any consent. The outrage soon turned violent and the tax was never collected.

Townshend Acts

The Townshend Acts were a series of acts passed by the British Parliament upon the colonies in North America. These acts placed duties on vital, high-volume imported items such as glass, paints, paper and tea, among other things. The money raised was intended to pay to keep governors and judges loyal, and also to set a general precedent that the British had the right to tax the American colonies.

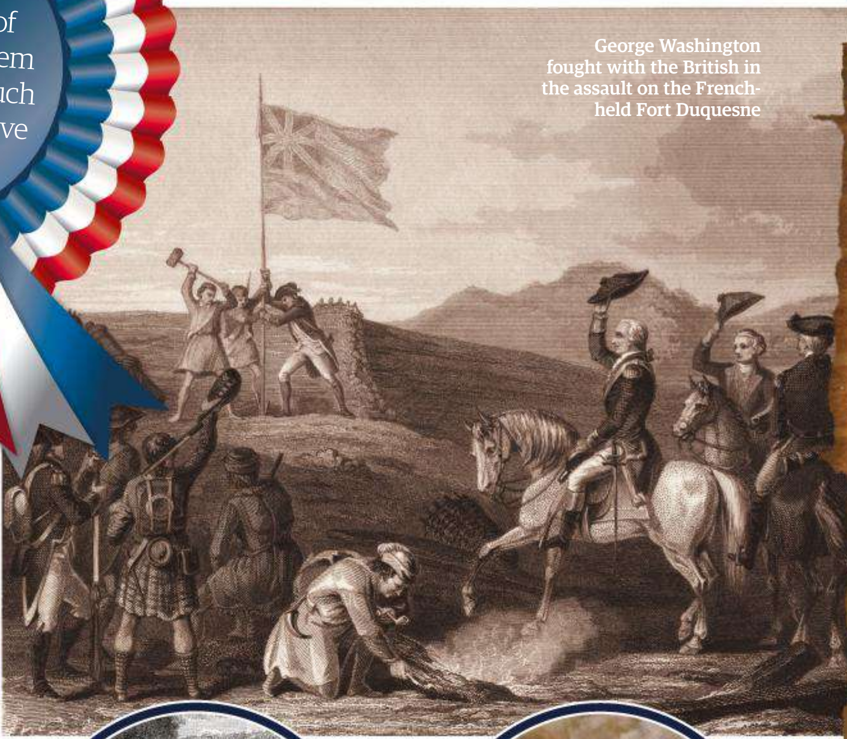
Boston Massacre

This incident occurred when a heckling crowd gathered around a British guard, who was quickly joined by eight more British soldiers. The soldiers fired at the crowd, killing three people and wounding multiple others. Two more later died of their wounds. The soldiers were arrested for manslaughter but were released without charge. This event helped to create an immensely anti-British sentiment in the colonies.

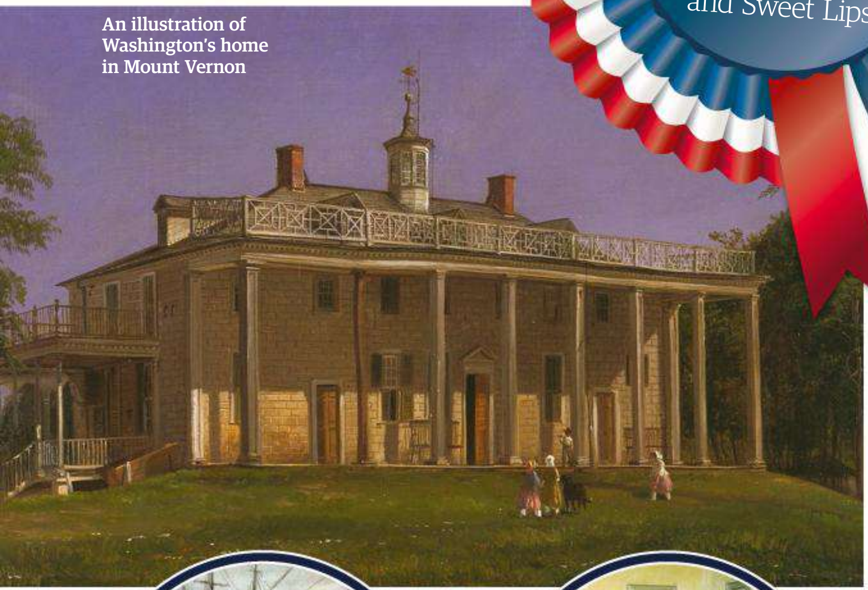


Washington's ability to evacuate his army from Long Island without any loss of life or supplies stunned the British

Washington was very fond of dogs and gave them unusual names such as Tarter, True Love and Sweet Lips



George Washington fought with the British in the assault on the French-held Fort Duquesne



An illustration of Washington's home in Mount Vernon

Boston Tea Party

In an effort to force the colonies to accept the Townshend duty on Tea, Britain passed the Tea Act, allowing the East India Company to ship its tea to North America. In defiance, protestors boarded the ships and threw chests full of tea into Boston Harbour. Parliament responded harshly, by passing the Intolerable Acts, which took away the rights of the state of Massachusetts to govern itself.

First Continental Congress

Delegates from 12 of the 13 British colonies in America met at Carpenters' Hall in Philadelphia to discuss ways to halt the Intolerable Acts. They made plans to refuse to import British goods until their grievances were met. When these efforts proved unsuccessful, a Second Continental Congress was held the next year to prepare the country for the impending American Revolutionary War.

The Battles of Lexington and Concord

When American intelligence learned that British troops planned to march on Concord, they were quick to assemble their forces and take up arms against them. However only 77 militiamen faced 700 British at Lexington and were quickly defeated. The British continued to Concord to search for arms, but they were forced back by 500 militiamen, winning the colonies their first war victory.

Battle of Bunker Hill

Set during the Siege of Boston, this battle saw the British mount an attack against the colonial troops stationed in Bunker Hill and Breed's Hill. Although the British were victorious, the heavy losses suffered by the redcoats led it to be a hollow victory, and it proved the Americans could hold their own against their foes in battle. Shortly after the conflict, King George III officially declared the colonies to be in a state of rebellion.

Washington did not see himself as a leader capable of leading such a vitally important force, but for those around him there was no other choice. With proven military experience, a devoted patriot and a strong, commanding presence, Washington was appointed commander in chief of the force that would take on the mightiest nation on Earth.

It did not take very long for the new commander to prove just what he was worth. In early-March 1776, Washington turned the Siege of Boston around by placing artillery on Dorchester Heights, low hills with a good view of Boston and its harbour. The perfectly placed, powerful cannons forced the British to retreat from the city, and the American commander moved his army into New York City. Even the critical British papers couldn't deny the skills of the captivating and exciting new leader who seemed capable of repelling their great empire with ease.

Victory and gossip aside, in truth Washington was out of his depth. He had commanded men before, but only a force of a thousand soldiers – far from the tens of thousands at his disposal now. He had only fought in frontier warfare, far removed from the open-field battles he now faced. He had never commanded legions of cavalry or artillery – he was constantly learning on the job. Washington had to rely on his own intelligence and courage to have any hope of snatching victory from his seasoned, experienced rivals.

This inexperience manifested itself in the crippling defeat the commander suffered during the Battle of Long Island. In an effort to seize New York, the British general William Howe unleashed a devastating campaign that Washington failed to subdue. So great was the British attack that Washington was forced to retreat his entire army across the East River under cover of darkness. Although this feat itself was remarkable, for the self-critical leader it was a swift and brutal reminder of his own inadequacies as a general, and he quickly realised this war would not be easily won.

But the British had a crippling weakness, too. They were simply too sure they were going to win. Howe so fatally underestimated the will of the American troops and their reckless leader that he left his Hessian soldiers at Trenton, confident the war would be won in the next few months. Washington, on the other hand, was acutely aware of the morale of his soldiers. After the defeat in New York and the humiliating retreat, they needed something positive to inspire them, and Trenton was right there for the taking.

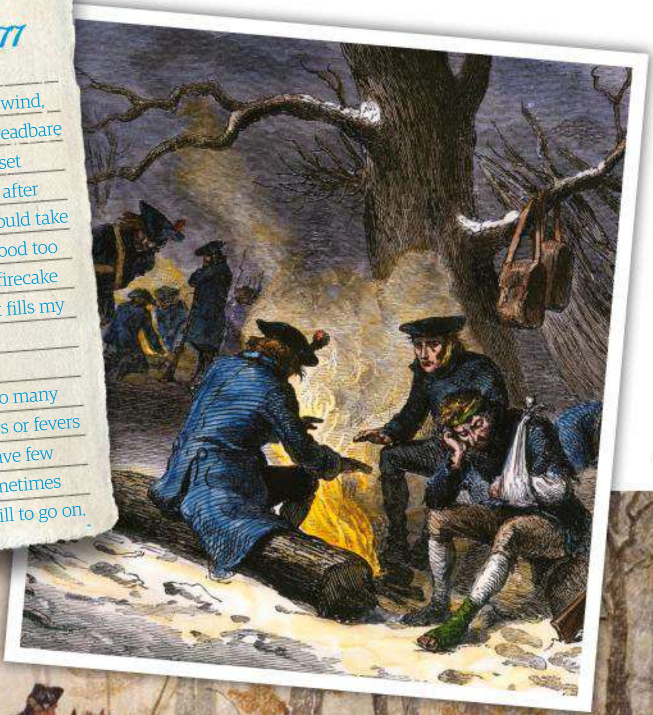
The plan was one only Washington could have thought up – bold, gutsy and downright dangerous, he led his soldiers across the perilous and icy Delaware River on a freezing Boxing Day in 1776. Only 2,400 of his men were able to make it across without turning back, but it was enough.

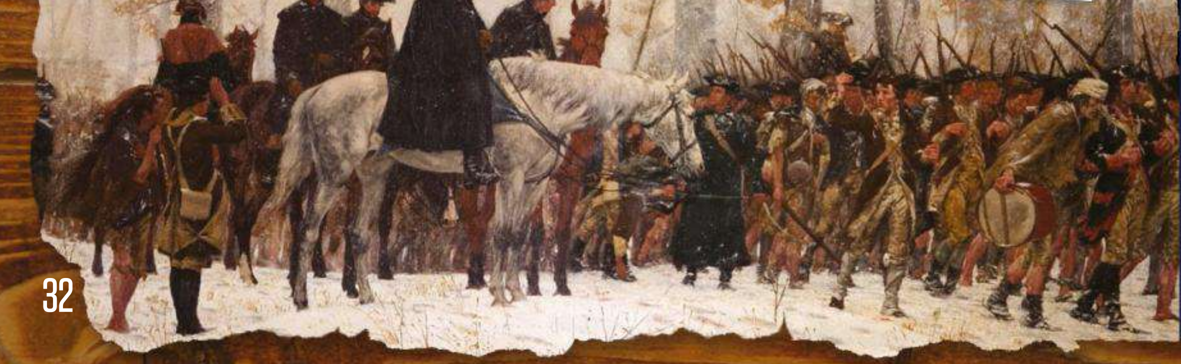
Valley Forge

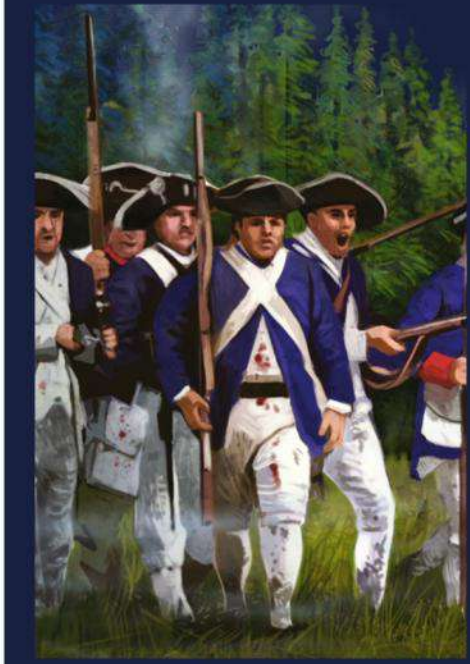
Pennsylvania, 28 January 1777

The cold today was worse than it has ever been. The crowded wooden huts provide shelter from the biting wind, but the cold passes between the slats, through my threadbare shirt and nestles in my bones. My quest to procure a set of shoes continues to be unsuccessful. I thought that after marching through the snow in bare feet someone would take pity on me – but there are no supplies coming. The food too is running low. For the past week I have only eaten firecake – a sticky, bland abomination of water and flour that fills my stomach but leaves the soul ravenous.

I shouldn't complain – I am one of the lucky few untouched by the diseases that ravage the camp. So many men have been plagued by itchy rashes and blisters or fevers that refuse to calm. The only relief here are the brave few women who wash and mend our uniforms, or sometimes simply provide a shoulder to men who have no will to go on.







Rebels

Organisation

There were 35,000 continentals in the United States with 44,500 militia. Their French allies increased their numbers with 12,000 French soldiers in America and 63,000 at Gibraltar. They also had 53 ships in service throughout the war. George Washington was commander in chief and Nathanael Greene served as major general.

Weapons

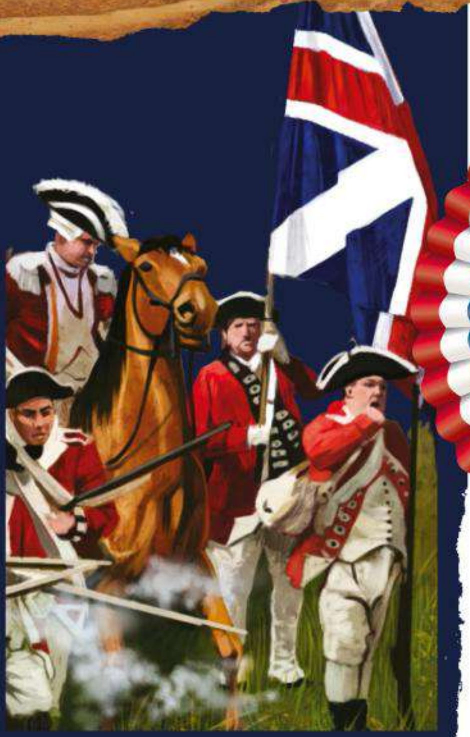
When the war began the colonies did not have a professional standing army of any kind, with many colonies only able to supply minutemen who were required to equip themselves – with most carrying rifles. The army's weapon of choice was the flintlock musket and they also carried bayonets.

Resources

The Continental Army suffered from massive supply issues. Supplies were repeatedly seized by British patrols. They also had to combat a primitive road system, which resulted in regular shortages of food, clothing, ammunition, tents and a host of essential military equipment, constantly pitching the odds against them.

Morale

The rebels' greatest weapon was the belief in their grand cause – fighting for their liberty from the oppressive British Crown. It was this strong morale belief in their cause that encouraged American leaders, who knew they were facing a well equipped and disciplined foe, to push on despite multiple crippling defeats.



Redcoats

Organisation

There were 56,000 British redcoats in North America along with a combined force of 52,000 loyalists, freed slaves and natives. They also had 78 Royal Navy ships at their service. William Howe served as commander in chief, but there were many decorated generals and officers such as Thomas Gage and Henry Clinton.

Weapons

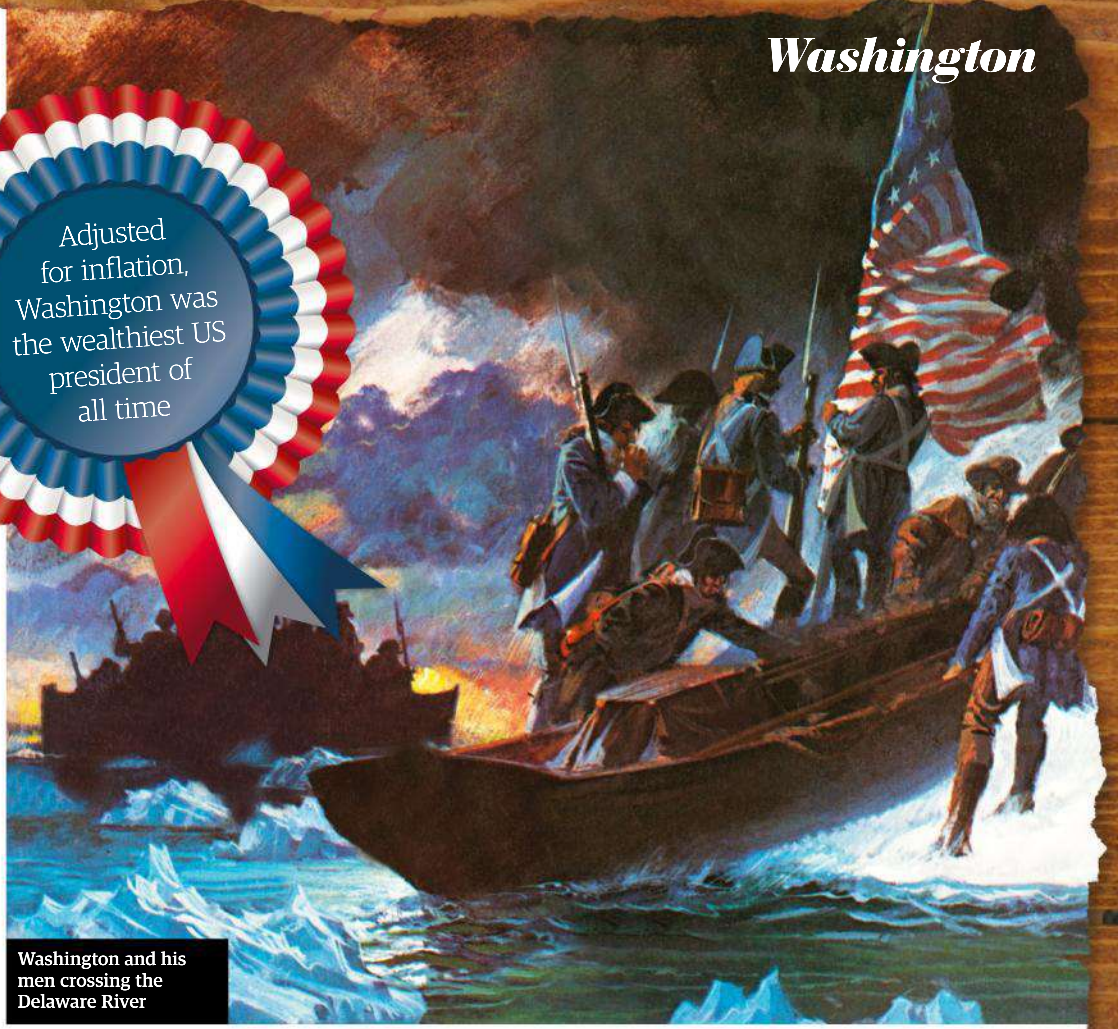
The British army depended on the .75-calibre flintlock musket popularly known as "Brown Bess." They also carried bayonets and, occasionally, short-barrel muskets. The redcoats also used cannons to great effect, to the degree that if an American unit was without cannon, they would not face a cannon-supported British troop.

Resources

Although British soldiers were better equipped than their American counterparts, they were fighting away from home, and supplies could take months to reach their destinations. Many British had to rely on loyal locals supplying them with food and praying the vital supplies would survive the 4,800km (3,000mi) trip across the ocean.

Morale

The British believed they could easily steamroll the rebels and this underestimation of their foe cost them dearly. The war was also expensive, and support at home was mixed at best. For many soldiers struggling in terrible conditions away from home, there was little motivation to fight.



Adjusted for inflation, Washington was the wealthiest US president of all time

Washington and his men crossing the Delaware River

Completely unprepared for the attack, the Hessians at Trenton were overwhelmed and swiftly defeated by Washington and his men. A few days later the commander led a counter-attack on a British force sent to attack his army at Princeton, achieving another small - but essential - American victory.

Meanwhile, the British redcoats still believed the rebellion could be stopped like a cork in a bottle. Howe thought that by taking control of key colonial cities, the river of rebellion would turn into a drought and the population would surrender to British rule. When Howe set his sights on the revolutionary hub of Philadelphia, Washington rode out to meet him, but, perhaps with his previous victories clouding his judgement, the commander was outmatched and Philadelphia fell to the British. However, the colonists' cause received a major boon when British General Burgoyne was forced to surrender his entire army of 6,300 men at the Battle of Saratoga. It seemed that major world players were finally beginning to believe the Americans had a chance of besting the mighty British Empire, and France openly allied itself with the rebels.

While General Howe concentrated on capturing key cities, Washington had a revelation. Although individual battles were important, the key to victory was not military success, but instead his ability to keep the heart of the resistance alive and pumping. This was something out of British hands and solely in his own.

> "When Washington retired from service in 1758, as far as he was concerned, his time on the battlefield was over"

This spirit of rebellion faced its most challenging obstacle yet over the long winter of 1977. For six long months the soldiers at the military camp of Valley Forge suffered thousands of disease-ridden deaths. With starvation rife and supplies low, many feared the horrendous conditions would force the desperate army to mutiny. Washington himself faced immense criticism from the American public and Congress, who urged him to hurry the war effort, while behind the scenes anti-Washington movements gained ground. Washington simply replied: "Whenever the public gets dissatisfied with my service [...] I shall quit the helm [...] and retire to a private life." The critics soon fell silent.

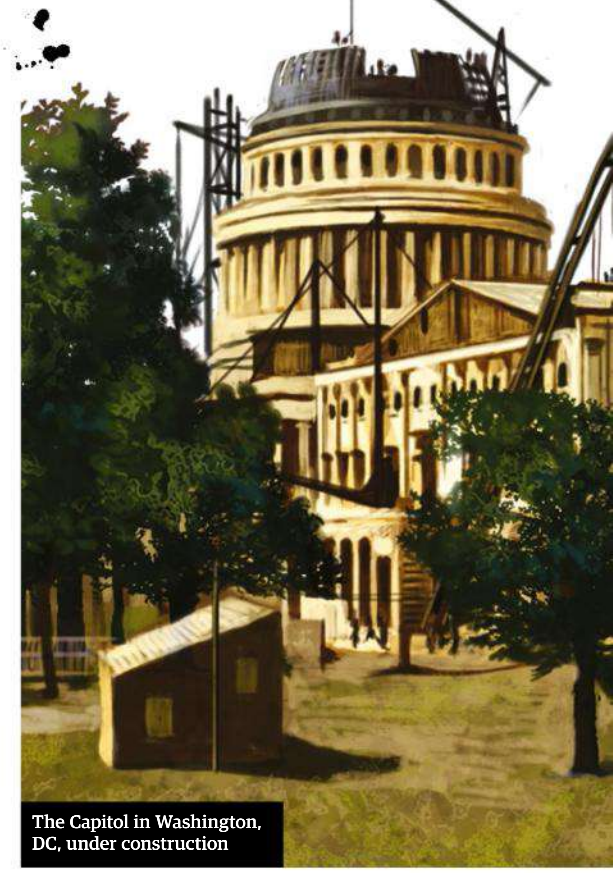
Although the conditions had been testing, to put it mildly, the soldiers emerged from the

winter in good spirits. Washington demonstrated that his sting was stronger than ever when his forces attacked the British flank attempting to leave Monmouth Courthouse. Although the battle ultimately ended in a stalemate, Washington had finally achieved what he set out to do since the beginning of the war - hold his own in a pitched battle. This was massive for the Americans; it proved the growing Continental Army was developing its skills at an alarming speed, and if the horrendous winter they had emerged from had not crushed them, what chance did the British have? The French seemed to share this attitude. On 5 September 1781, 24 French ships emerged victorious against 19 British vessels at the Battle of Chesapeake. The success prevented the British from reinforcing the troops of Lord Cornwallis, who was blockaded in Yorktown, Virginia, and allowed crucial French troops to pour into the Continental Army, bringing vast supplies of artillery with them. This was exactly the opportunity Washington needed, and he didn't plan to let it go to waste.

With the British army trapped and exposed, and his own swelling in size, Washington led his men out of Williamsburg and surrounded Yorktown. From late-September the Continental Army moved steadily closer to the redcoats, forcing them to pull back from their outer defences, which left them open for the Americans and French to use. As the colonists began to set up artilleries, the British pelted them with steady fire. In spite of this and at some great risk to himself, Washington continued to visit and motivate his men on the front line, and by 5 October the commander was ready to make his move.

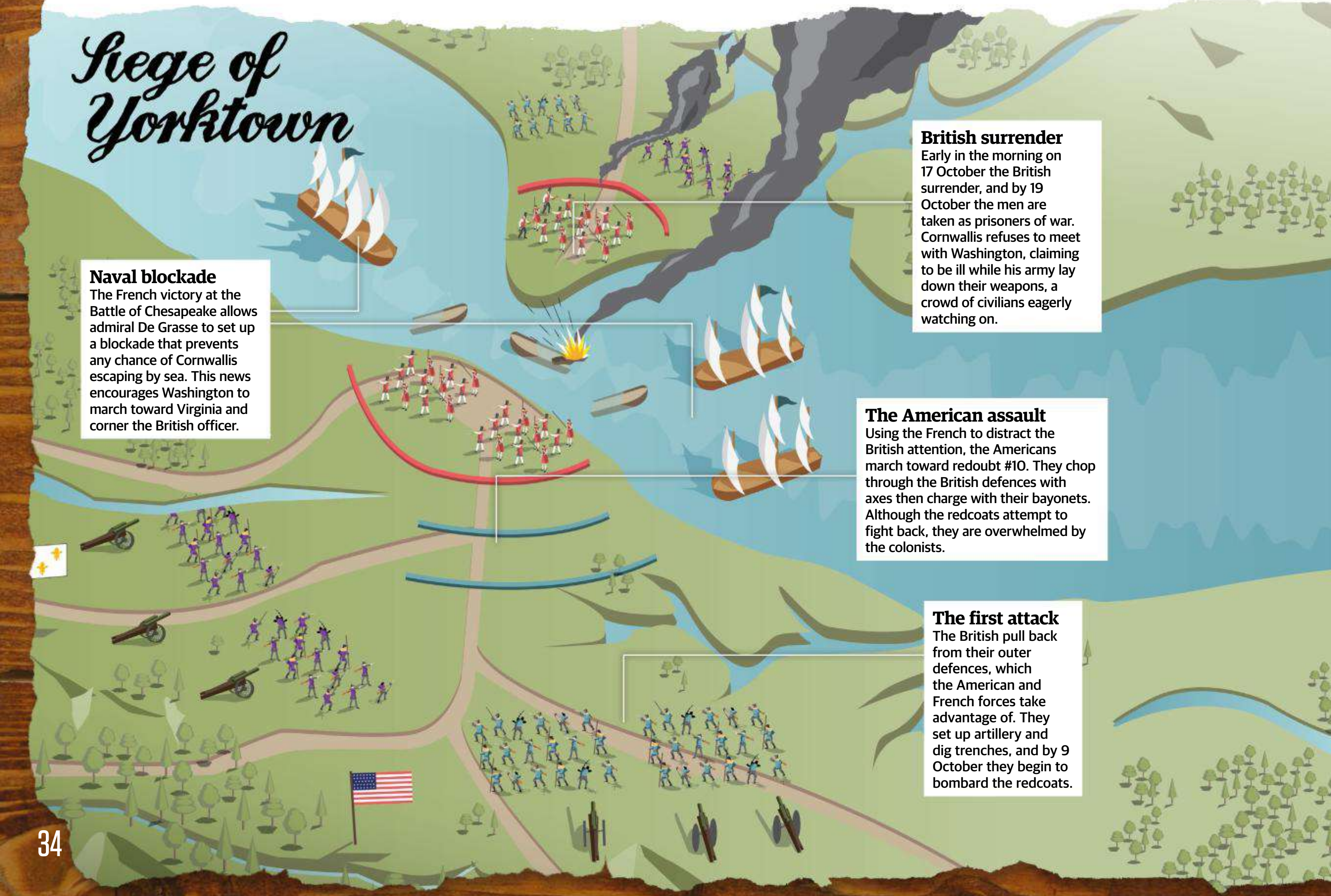
As a vicious storm raged, Washington grasped his pickaxe in his hand and struck several blows into the dirt that would become the new trench the Americans would use to bombard the British. By 5pm on 9 October, the Americans were pelting the British with a relentless stream of cannon fire. The British ships were sunk and soldiers deserted en masse. More American trenches were dug as they gained land, and when Washington's men rushed toward the British redoubt, they overwhelmed the surprised redcoats. As Washington rained artillery fire down on the town, Cornwallis's attempts at escape across the York River were unsuccessful and he finally surrendered.

Little did Washington know that the victory he had secured at Yorktown would lead to the ultimate surrender of British hostilities, the end of the war and ultimately American freedom. On 3 September 1783 the Treaty of Paris was signed between representatives of both countries, which proclaimed that Britain recognised the independence of



The Capitol in Washington, DC, under construction

Siege of Yorktown

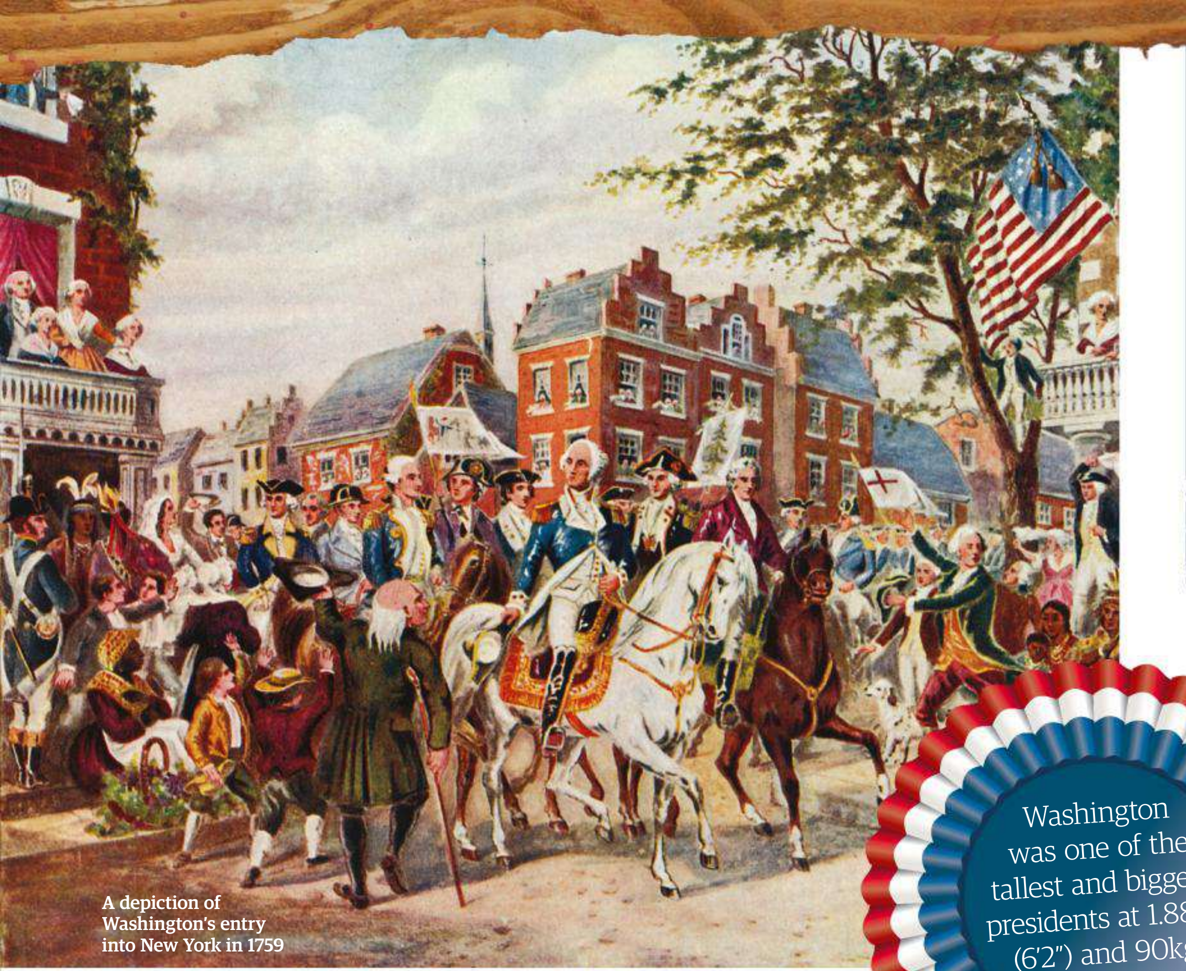


Naval blockade
The French victory at the Battle of Chesapeake allows admiral De Grasse to set up a blockade that prevents any chance of Cornwallis escaping by sea. This news encourages Washington to march toward Virginia and corner the British officer.

British surrender
Early in the morning on 17 October the British surrender, and by 19 October the men are taken as prisoners of war. Cornwallis refuses to meet with Washington, claiming to be ill while his army lay down their weapons, a crowd of civilians eagerly watching on.

The American assault
Using the French to distract the British attention, the Americans march toward redoubt #10. They chop through the British defences with axes then charge with their bayonets. Although the redcoats attempt to fight back, they are overwhelmed by the colonists.

The first attack
The British pull back from their outer defences, which the American and French forces take advantage of. They set up artillery and dig trenches, and by 9 October they begin to bombard the redcoats.



A depiction of Washington's entry into New York in 1759

Washington has been immortalised on Mount Rushmore along with Thomas Jefferson, Theodore Roosevelt and Abraham Lincoln

Washington was one of the tallest and biggest presidents at 1.88m (6'2") and 90kg (200lb)

the United States. With victory declared, Washington disbanded his army and wished farewell to the men who had valued him not only as a leader, but also a fellow soldier. On 23 December 1783, in an action that would define him in the history books, he resigned as commander in chief of the army and humbly returned to his home in Mount Vernon.

However, without him his country was struggling. With nobody to unite them the states fought and squabbled among themselves over boundaries and inflicted harsh taxes on their own citizens. The ex-commander watched from afar as the land he had led to freedom struggled to support itself. He was dismayed, but hesitant to act. It wasn't until an armed uprising known as Shays' Rebellion took place in Massachusetts that Washington was finally persuaded to step into the limelight once more.

Washington quietly attended the Constitution Convention held in Philadelphia in 1787. There he sat and listened silently to the proceedings, speaking only once. However, his prestige spoke volumes and those gathered there agreed the national government needed more authority – it needed a figure strong and commanding enough to maintain control. Washington was unanimously chosen to fulfil this role. He became president of the convention in 1787, and by 1789 he was unanimously elected once more, but this time as the first-ever president of the United States – the only one in history to receive 100 per cent of the votes. He would serve two terms as president from 1789 to 1797 until he would yet again relinquish the power he could so easily have exploited. In the spring of 1797, he finally returned to his precious Mount Vernon, realising, perhaps more so than any one of the many people who supported him, that ultimate power in the land of the free could not lay solely in one man's hands indefinitely.

> "Washington did not see himself as a leader capable of leading such a vitally important force"

Washington myths cut down

We get an expert opinion on the myths surrounding this legendary man

Stephen Brumwell is a freelance writer and independent historian living in Amsterdam. His book, *George Washington: Gentleman Warrior*, won the 2013 George Washington Book Prize.

He had wooden teeth

George Washington was plagued with dental problems from his twenties, and by 1789, had just one of his own teeth remaining. He owned several sets of false teeth, but none was crafted from wood. Instead, Washington's dentures incorporated a variety of materials – bone, 'sea-horse', or hippopotamus ivory, and human teeth – fixed by lead, gold and metal wire. The belief that Washington's false teeth were wooden probably originated in the brown-stained appearance of surviving examples – apparently owing to his fondness for port wine.

He cut down a cherry tree and confessed to his father

Perhaps the best known of all the legends spun around Washington, the 'cherry tree story' first surfaced in a biography written after his death by Mason Locke Weems. Concerned with portraying Washington as an exemplary role model for his countrymen, 'Parson Weems' concocted the fable of the six-year-old hatcheting his father's prized cherry tree, and then deflecting parental wrath by frankly confessing to the deed with the words "I can't tell a lie, Pa."

Washington was a moonshiner

While there's no proof that Washington set up illicit liquor stills to make moonshine, he was certainly in the forefront of American whiskey production. On the advice of his Scottish farm manager, James Anderson, he established a whiskey distillery at Mount Vernon in 1797. By the year of Washington's death, 1799, this was producing almost 41,640l (11,000gal) of rye and corn whiskey, making it the largest US distillery of its day.

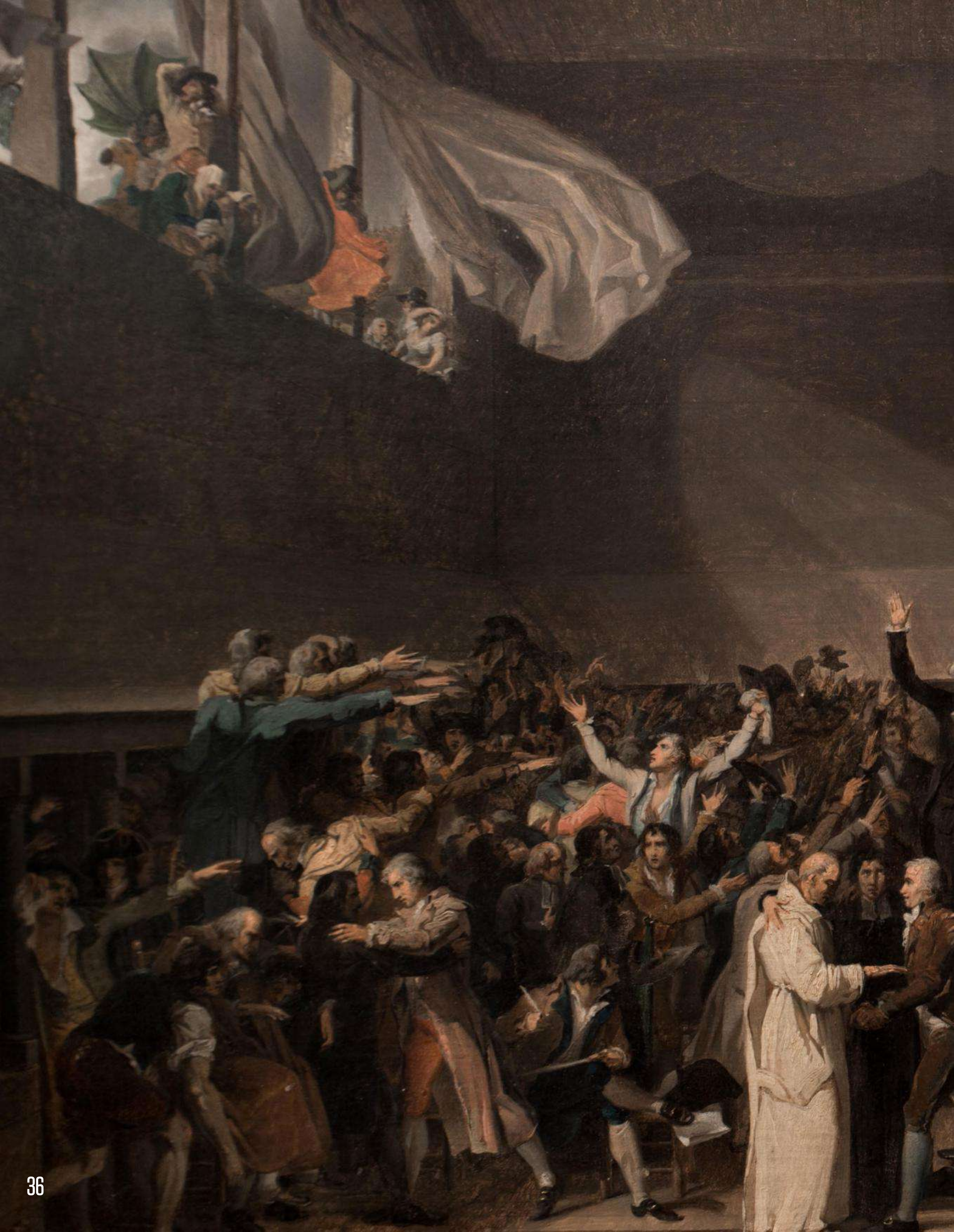
He threw a silver dollar across the Potomac River

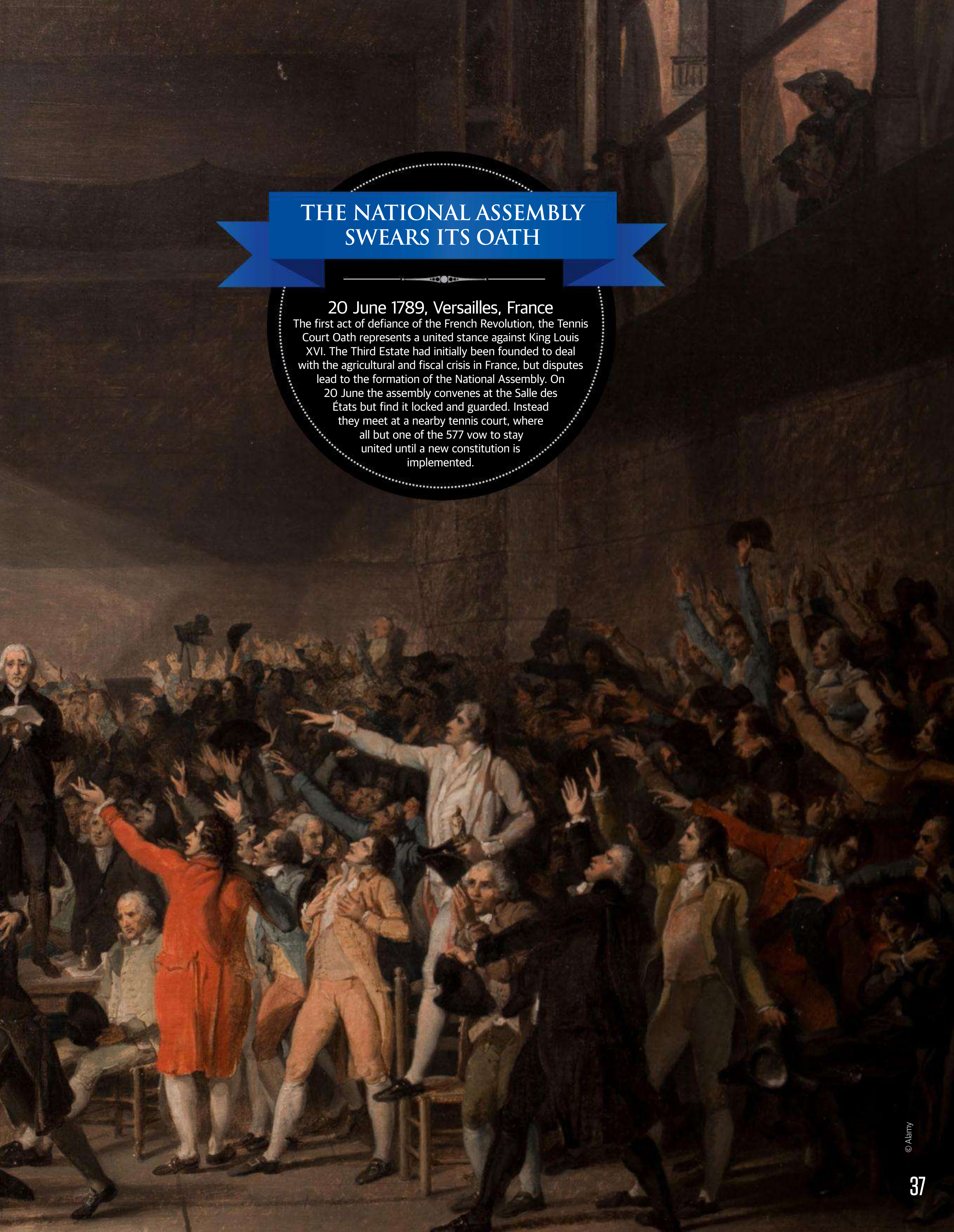
Standing 188cm (6'2") tall, and with a well-muscled physique, young George Washington was renowned for his strength. Yet even Washington in his prime would have struggled to hurl a silver dollar across the Potomac River, which is more than 1.6km (1mi) wide opposite his Virginian home at Mount Vernon. Also, silver dollars were only introduced in 1794, when Washington was already in his sixties.

He wore a wig

Although wigs were fashionable during Washington's lifetime, he never wore one, preferring to keep his own hair, which was reddish-brown, long and tied back in a tight queue, or 'pigtail'. However, Washington regularly used the white hair powder that was customary among men of his wealthy social class, especially for formal occasions, and this gave the impression of a wig, apparent in many of his portraits.

© Alamy; Look and Learn; Dean Franklin; Joe Cummings





THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY SWEARS ITS OATH

20 June 1789, Versailles, France

The first act of defiance of the French Revolution, the Tennis Court Oath represents a united stance against King Louis XVI. The Third Estate had initially been founded to deal with the agricultural and fiscal crisis in France, but disputes lead to the formation of the National Assembly. On 20 June the assembly convenes at the Salle des États but find it locked and guarded. Instead they meet at a nearby tennis court, where all but one of the 577 vow to stay united until a new constitution is implemented.

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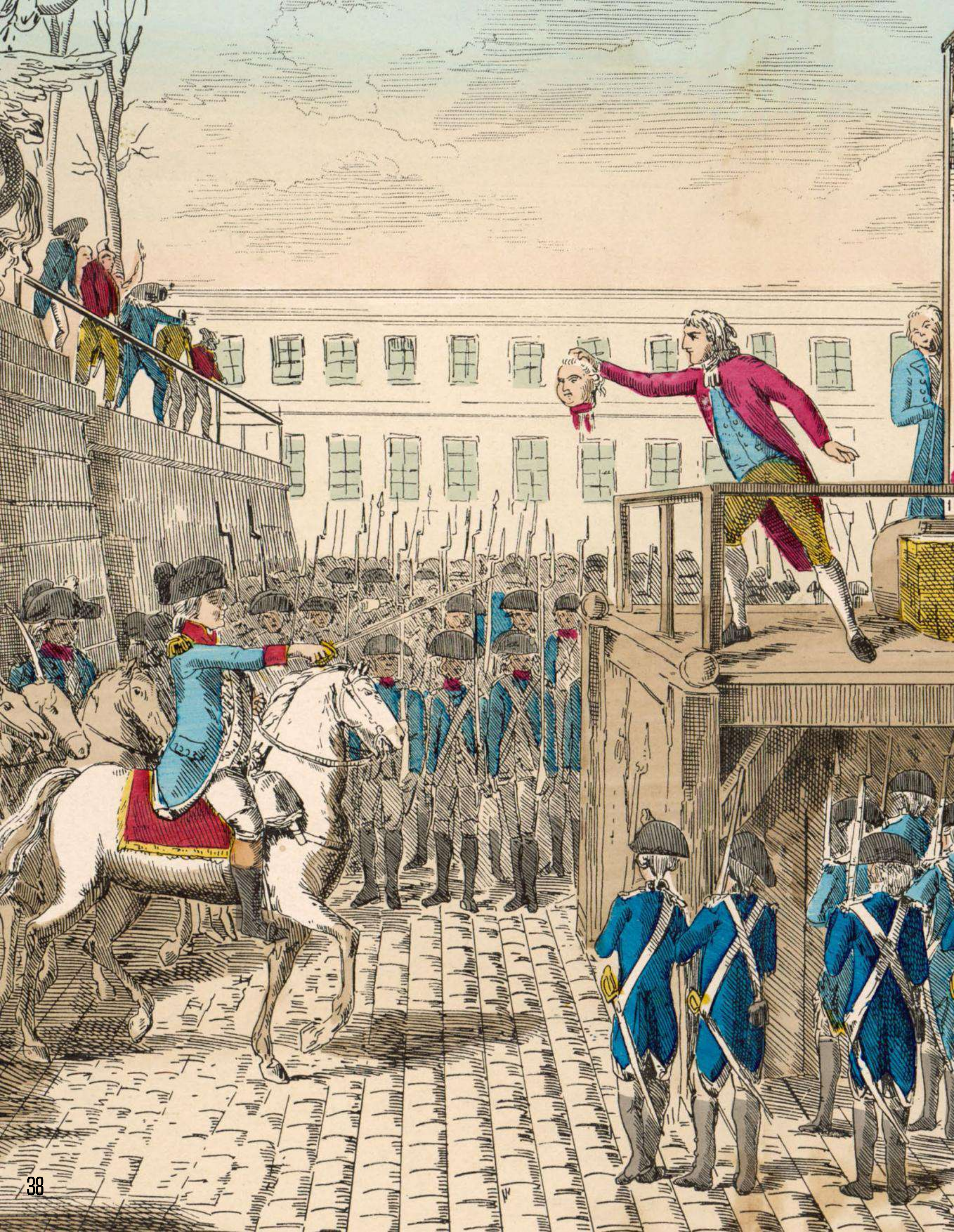

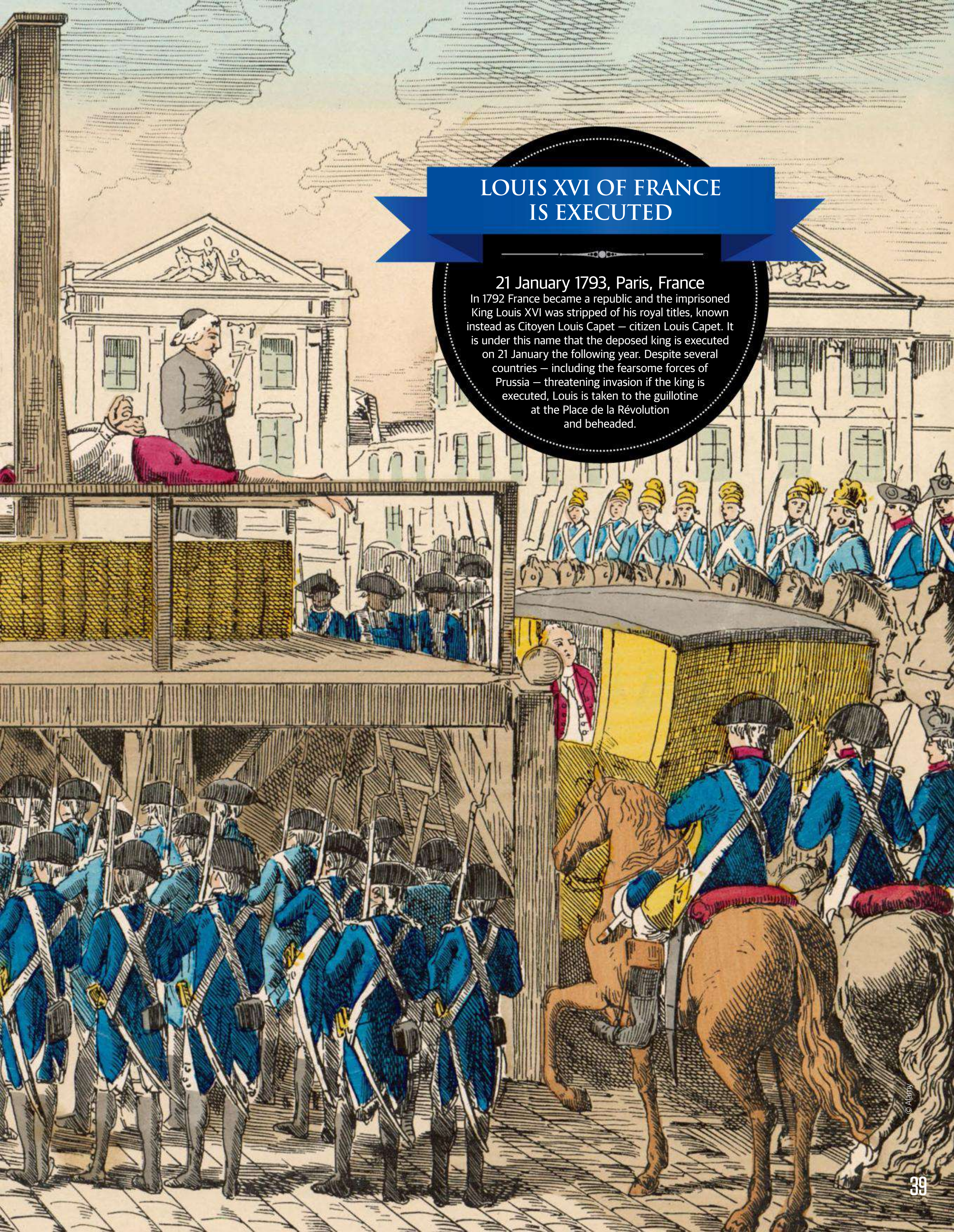

LOUIS XVI OF FRANCE IS EXECUTED

21 January 1793, Paris, France

In 1792 France became a republic and the imprisoned King Louis XVI was stripped of his royal titles, known instead as Citoyen Louis Capet – citizen Louis Capet. It is under this name that the deposed king is executed on 21 January the following year. Despite several countries – including the fearsome forces of Prussia – threatening invasion if the king is executed, Louis is taken to the guillotine at the Place de la Révolution and beheaded.

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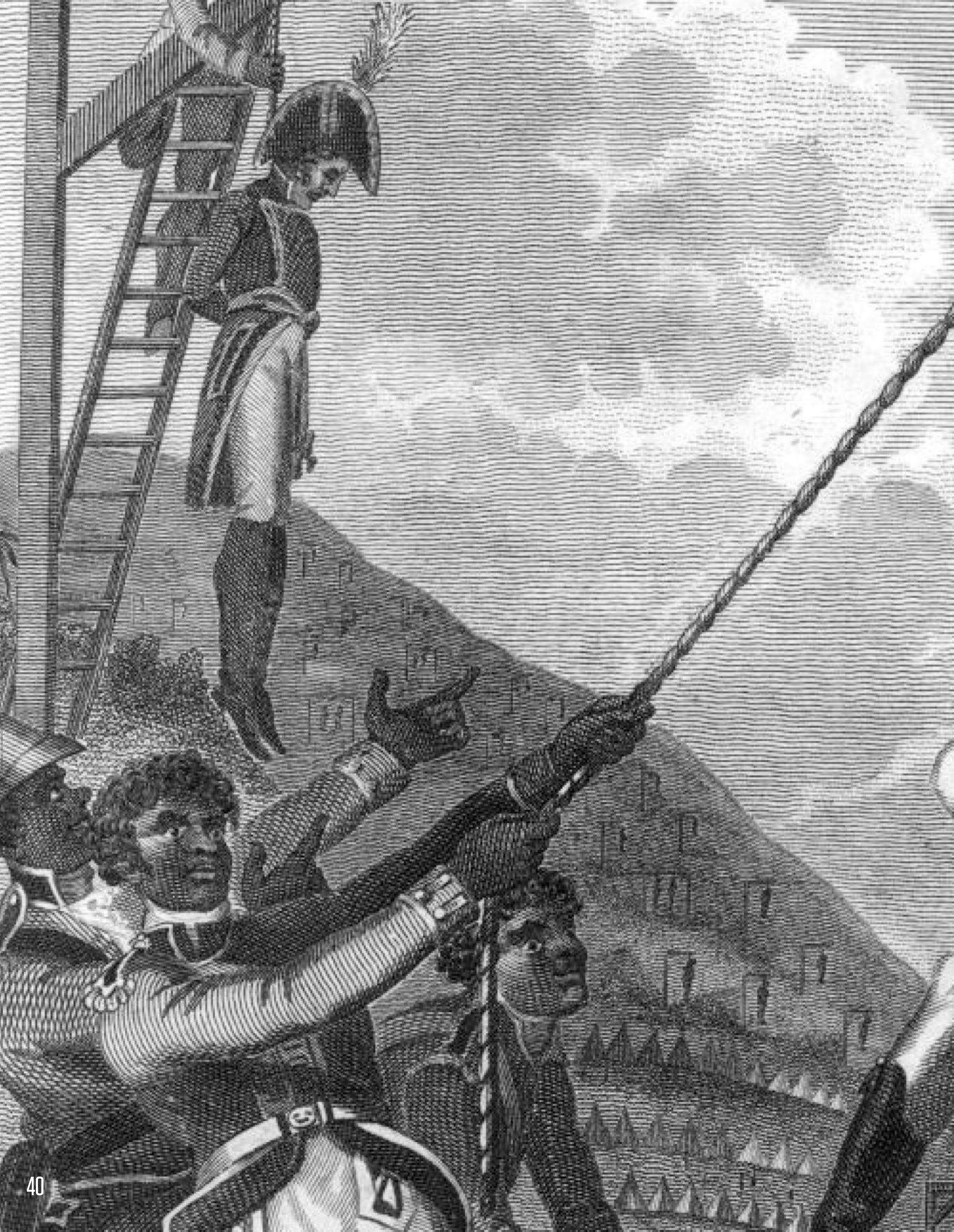
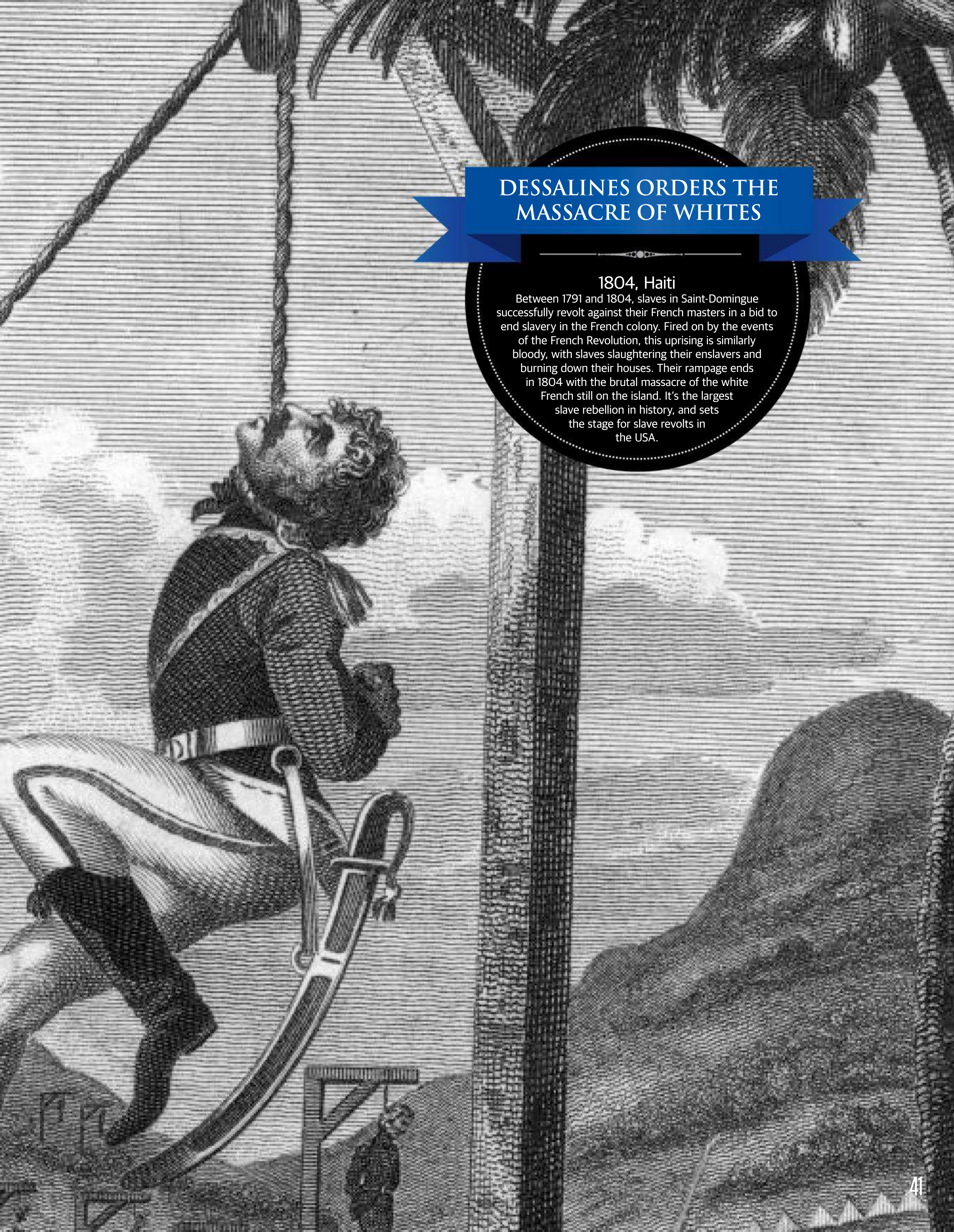




DESSALINES ORDERS THE MASSACRE OF WHITES

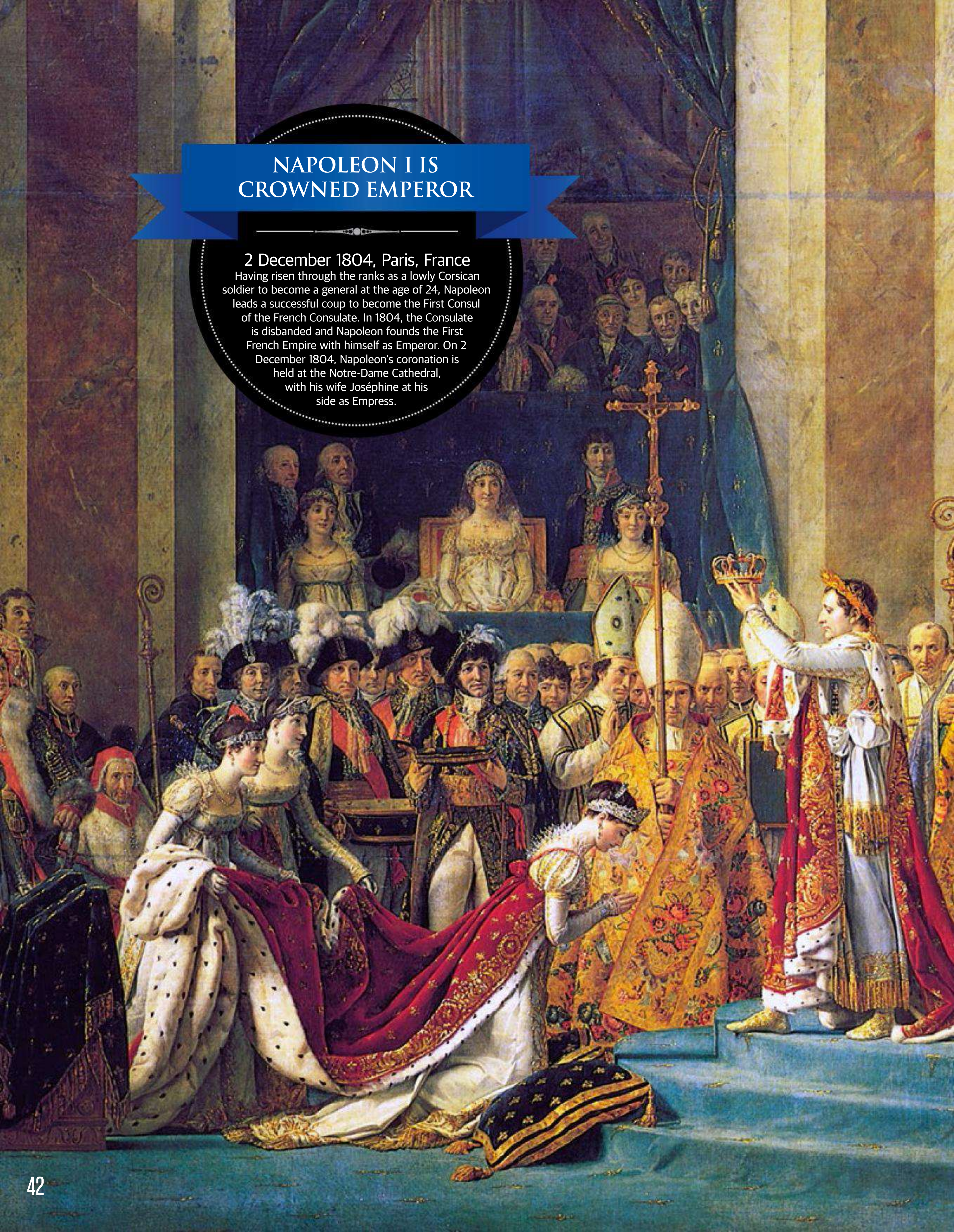
1804, Haiti

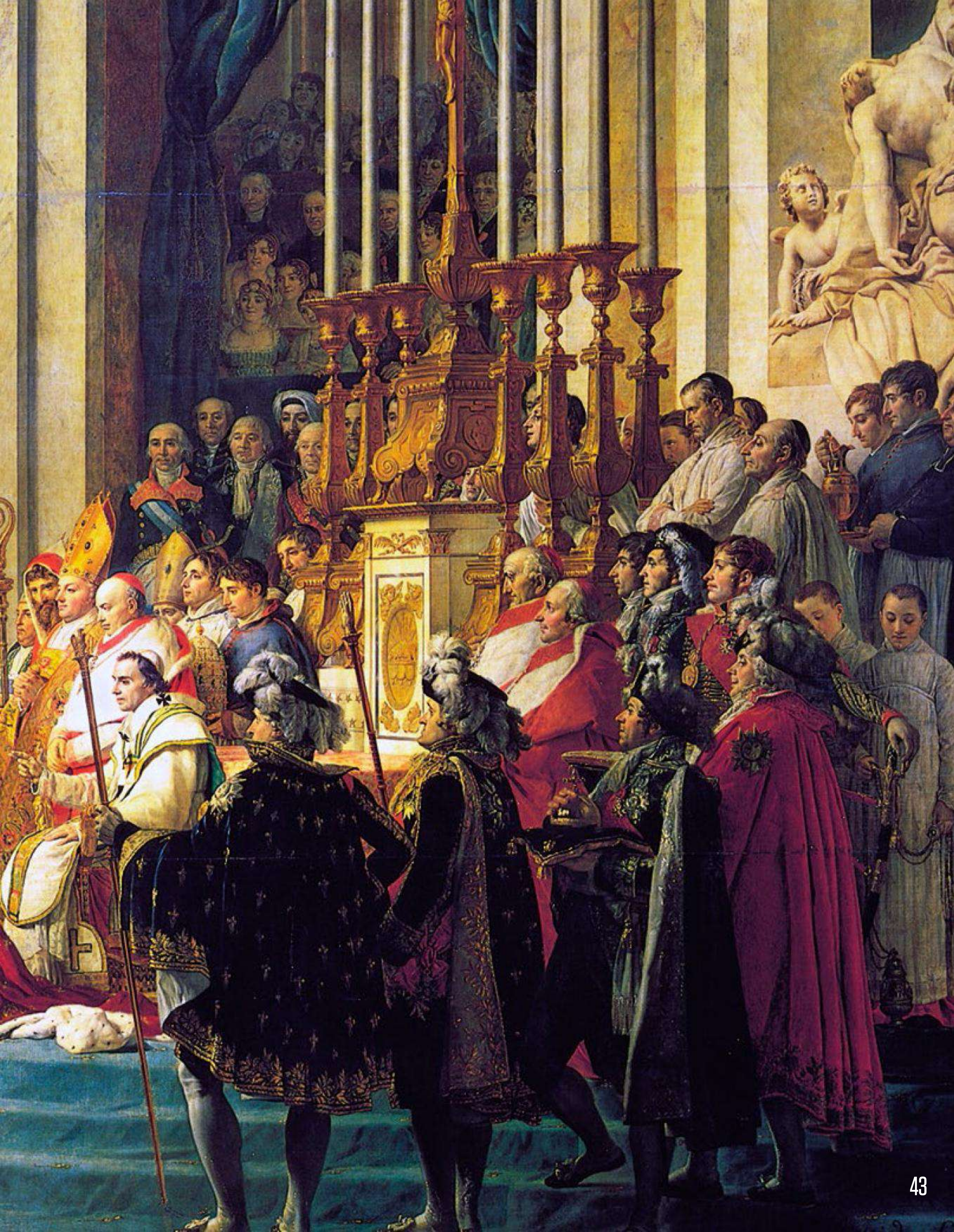
Between 1791 and 1804, slaves in Saint-Domingue successfully revolt against their French masters in a bid to end slavery in the French colony. Fired on by the events of the French Revolution, this uprising is similarly bloody, with slaves slaughtering their enslavers and burning down their houses. Their rampage ends in 1804 with the brutal massacre of the white French still on the island. It's the largest slave rebellion in history, and sets the stage for slave revolts in the USA.

NAPOLEON I IS CROWNED EMPEROR

2 December 1804, Paris, France

Having risen through the ranks as a lowly Corsican soldier to become a general at the age of 24, Napoleon leads a successful coup to become the First Consul of the French Consulate. In 1804, the Consulate is disbanded and Napoleon founds the First French Empire with himself as Emperor. On 2 December 1804, Napoleon's coronation is held at the Notre-Dame Cathedral, with his wife Joséphine at his side as Empress.

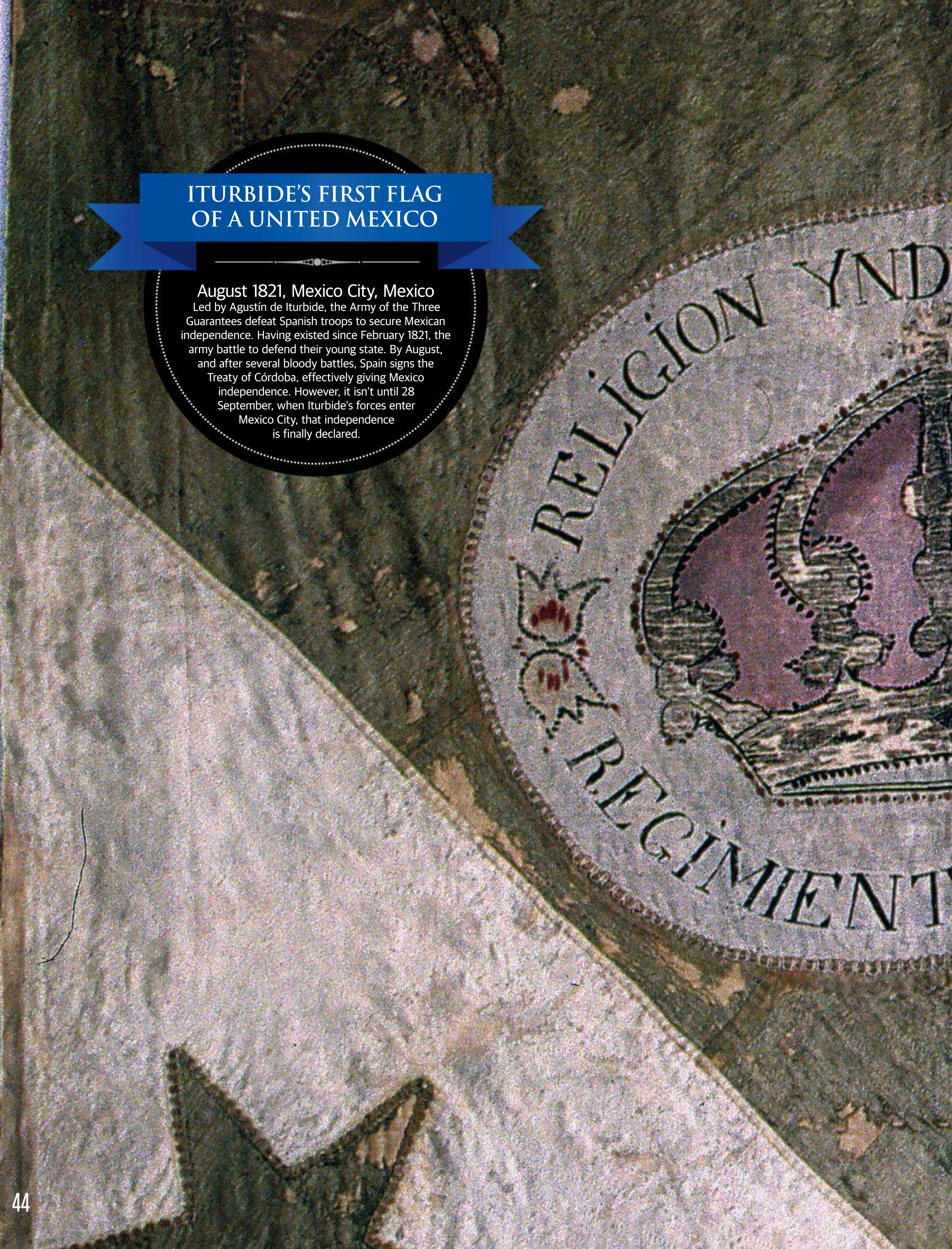




ITURBIDE'S FIRST FLAG OF A UNITED MEXICO

August 1821, Mexico City, Mexico

Led by Agustín de Iturbide, the Army of the Three Guarantees defeat Spanish troops to secure Mexican independence. Having existed since February 1821, the army battle to defend their young state. By August, and after several bloody battles, Spain signs the Treaty of Córdoba, effectively giving Mexico independence. However, it isn't until 28 September, when Iturbide's forces enter Mexico City, that independence is finally declared.



EPEND.A UNION
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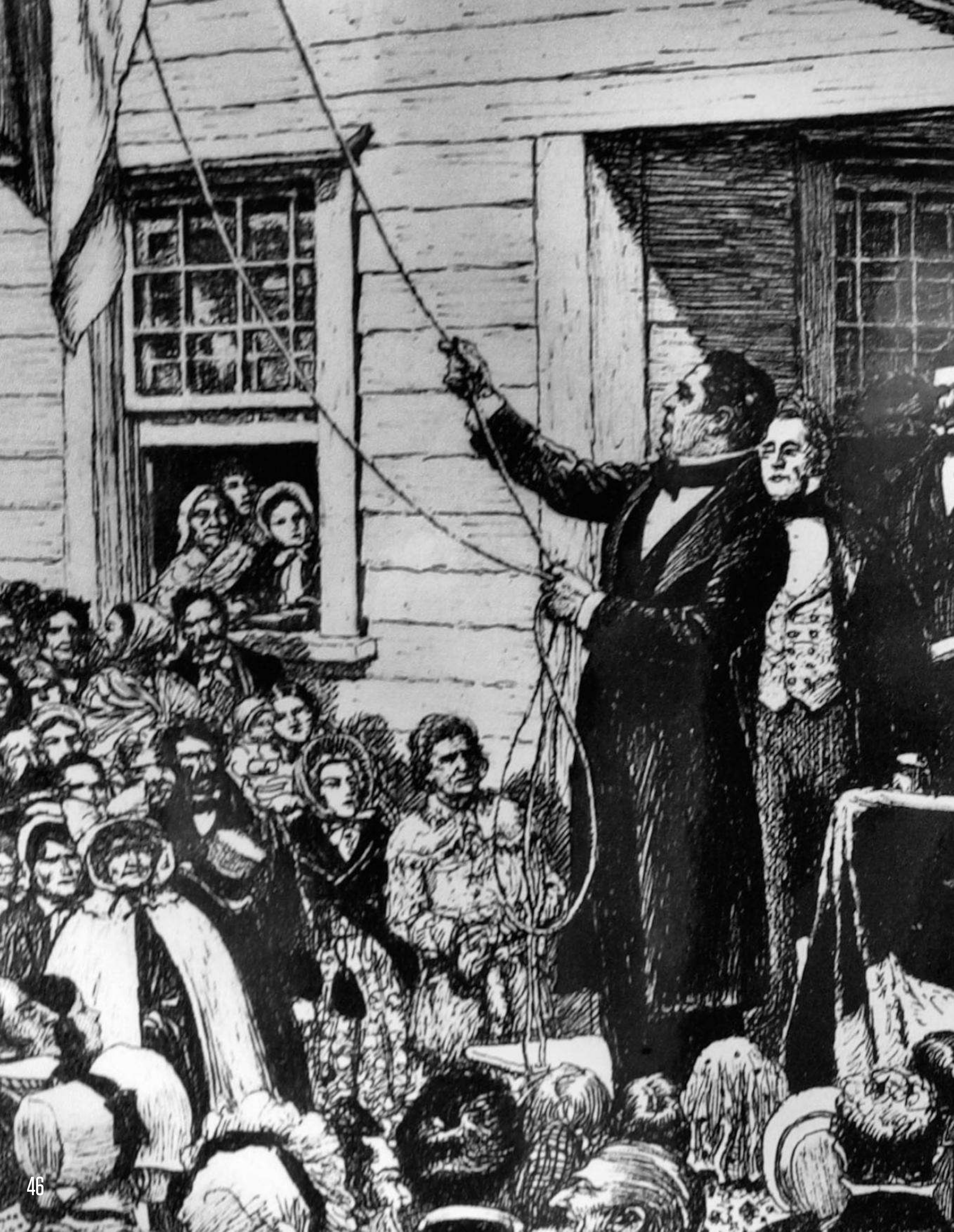

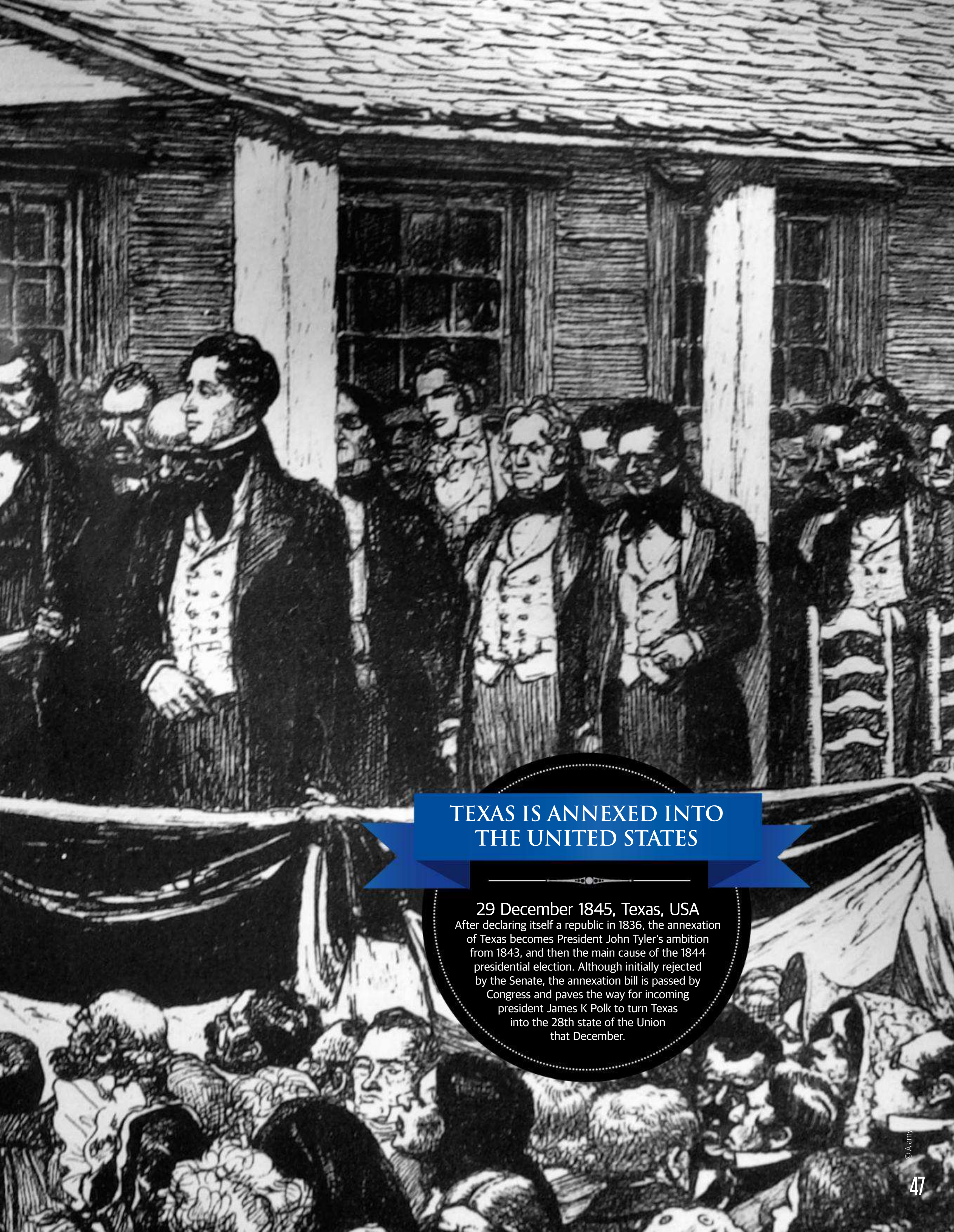

TEXAS IS ANNEXED INTO THE UNITED STATES

29 December 1845, Texas, USA

After declaring itself a republic in 1836, the annexation of Texas becomes President John Tyler's ambition from 1843, and then the main cause of the 1844 presidential election. Although initially rejected by the Senate, the annexation bill is passed by Congress and paves the way for incoming president James K Polk to turn Texas into the 28th state of the Union that December.

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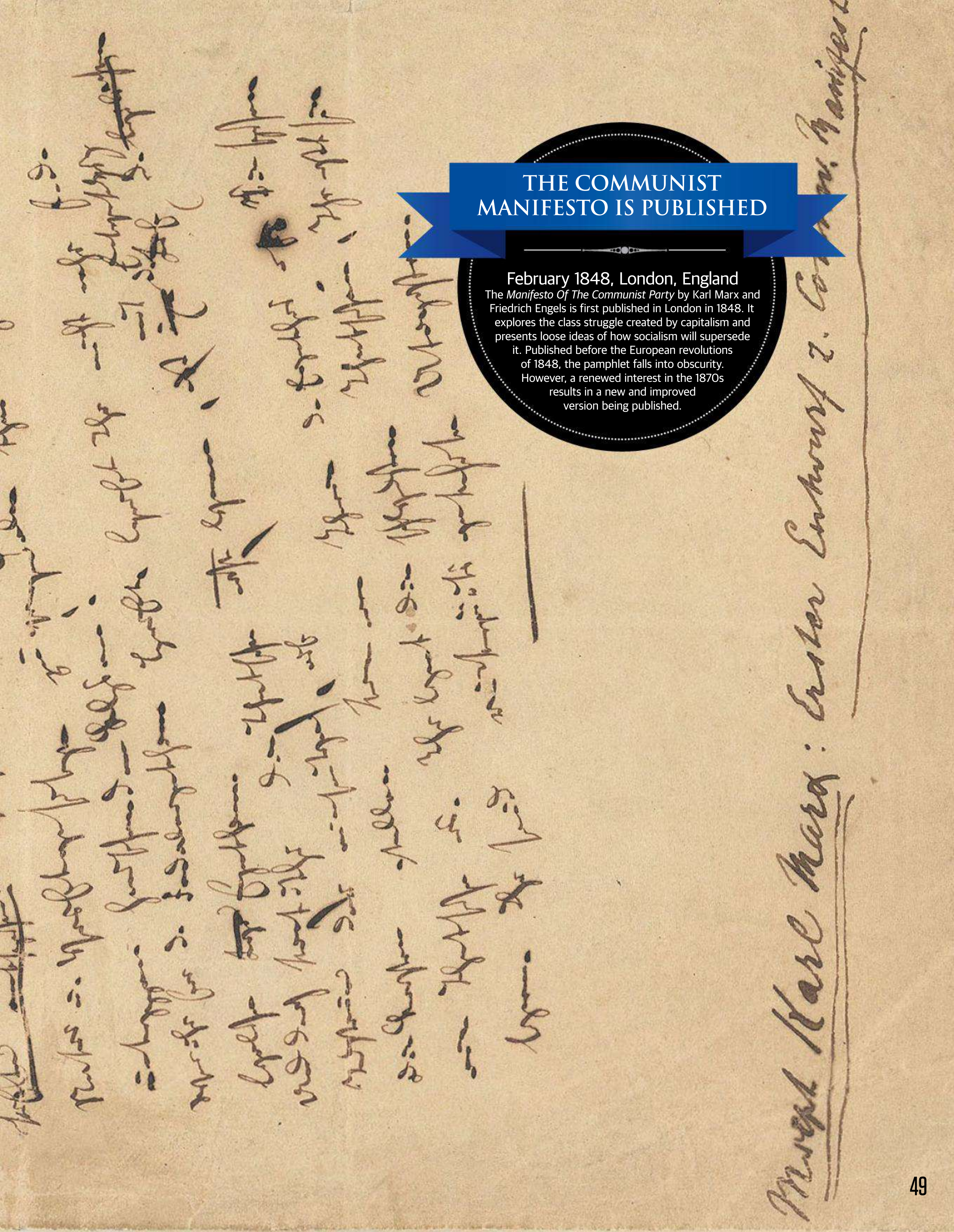
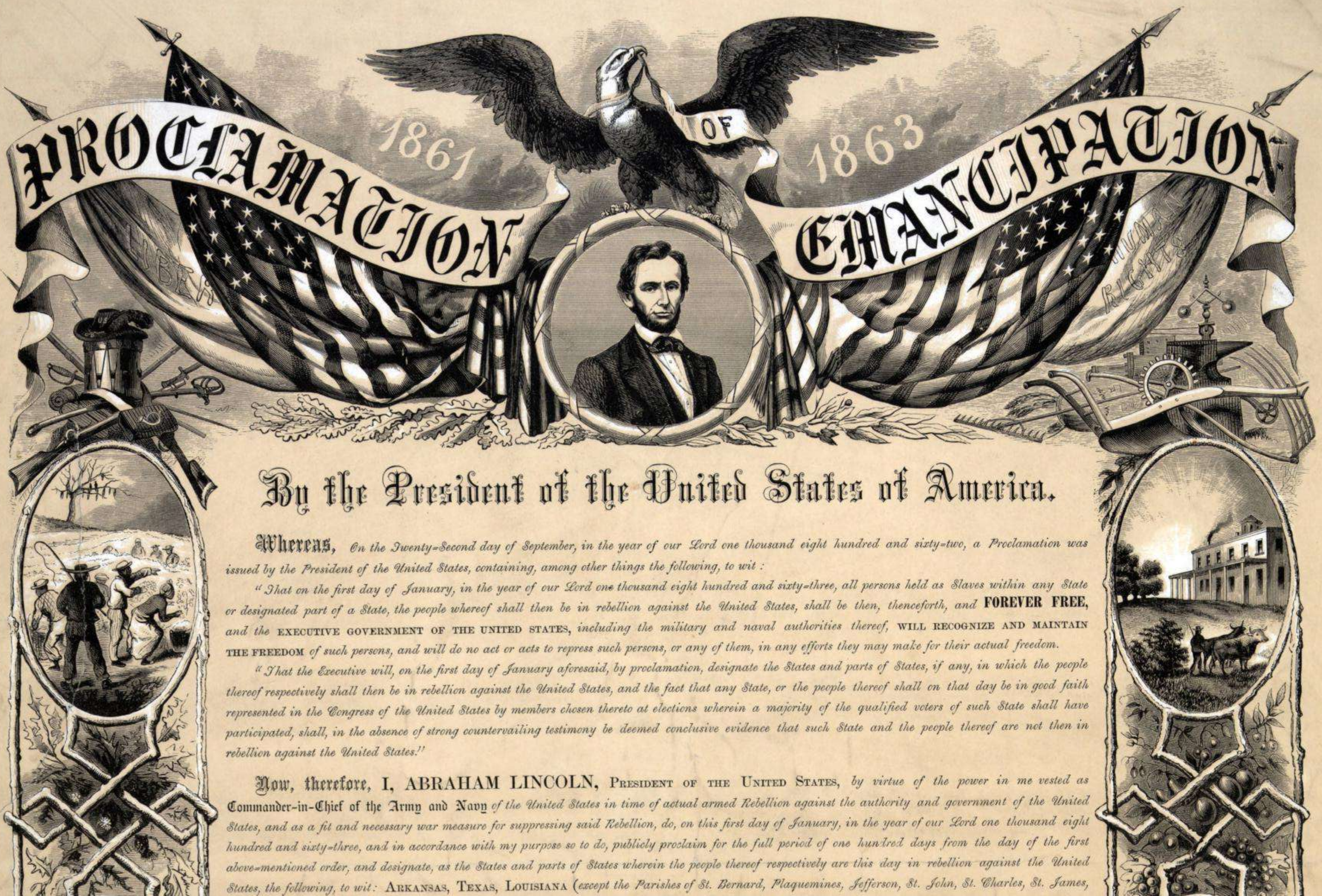


THE COMMUNIST MANIFESTO IS PUBLISHED

February 1848, London, England

The *Manifesto Of The Communist Party* by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels is first published in London in 1848. It explores the class struggle created by capitalism and presents loose ideas of how socialism will supersede it. Published before the European revolutions of 1848, the pamphlet falls into obscurity. However, a renewed interest in the 1870s results in a new and improved version being published.


1861
1863
LIBERTY
HUMAN RIGHTS

PROCLAMATION OF EMANCIPATION

By the President of the United States of America.

Whereas, *On the Twenty-Second day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-two, a Proclamation was issued by the President of the United States, containing, among other things the following, to wit:*

"That on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as Slaves within any State or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforth, and **FOREVER FREE,** *and the* EXECUTIVE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES, *including the military and naval authorities thereof,* WILL RECOGNIZE AND MAINTAIN THE FREEDOM *of such persons, and will do no act or acts to repress such persons, or any of them, in any efforts they may make for their actual freedom.*

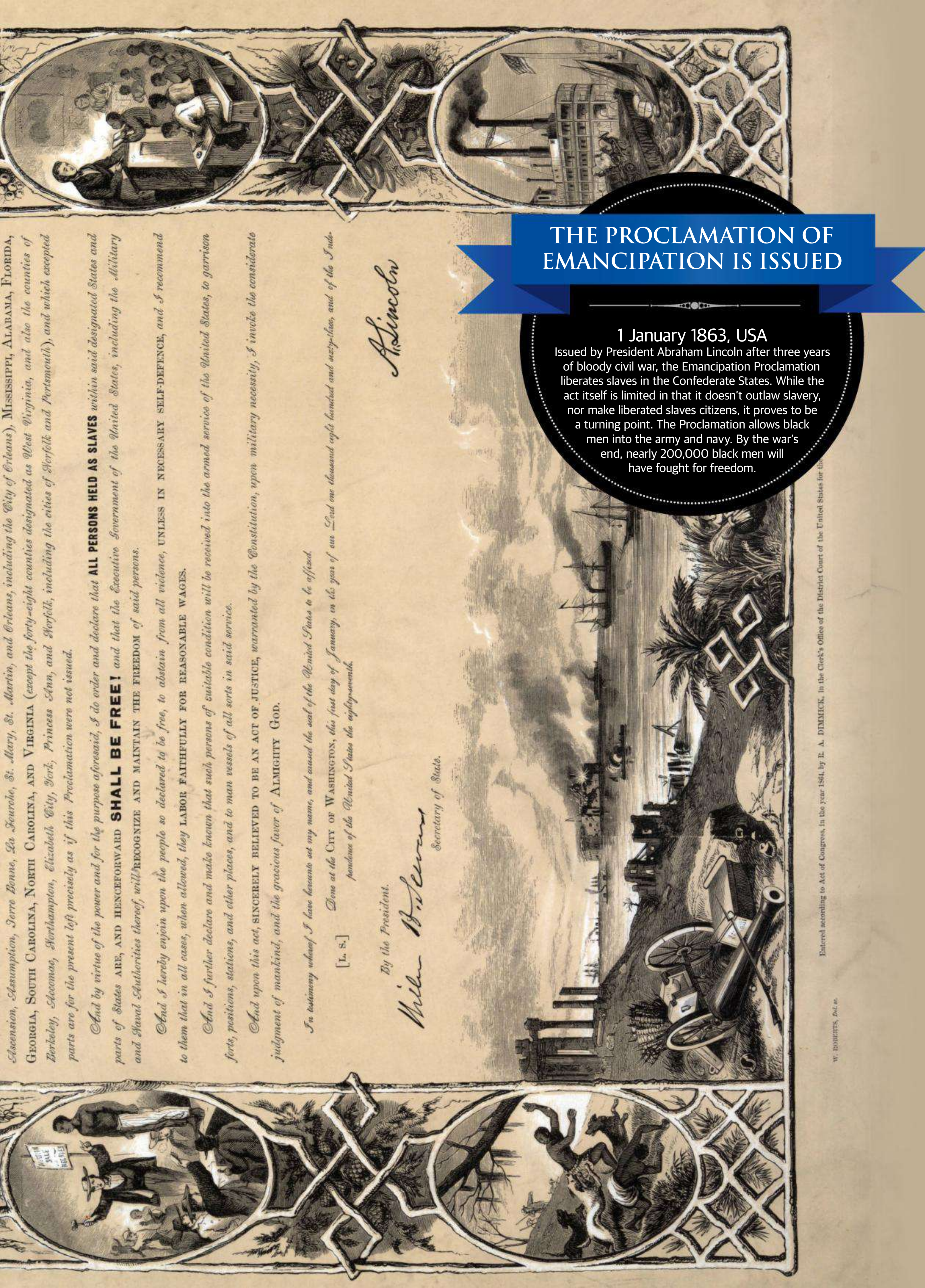
"That the Executive will, on the first day of January aforesaid, by proclamation, designate the States and parts of States, if any, in which the people thereof respectively shall then be in rebellion against the United States, and the fact that any State, or the people thereof shall on that day be in good faith represented in the Congress of the United States by members chosen thereto at elections wherein a majority of the qualified voters of such State shall have participated, shall, in the absence of strong countervailing testimony be deemed conclusive evidence that such State and the people thereof are not then in rebellion against the United States."

Now, therefore, I, ABRAHAM LINCOLN, PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES, *by virtue of the power in me vested as* **Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy** *of the United States in time of actual armed Rebellion against the authority and government of the United States, and as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said Rebellion, do, on this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and in accordance with my purpose so to do, publicly proclaim for the full period of one hundred days from the day of the first above-mentioned order, and designate, as the States and parts of States wherein the people thereof respectively are this day in rebellion against the United States, the following, to wit:* ARKANSAS, TEXAS, LOUISIANA *(except the Parishes of St. Bernard, Plaquemines, Jefferson, St. John, St. Charles, St. James,*

THE PROCLAMATION OF EMANCIPATION IS ISSUED

1 January 1863, USA

Issued by President Abraham Lincoln after three years of bloody civil war, the Emancipation Proclamation liberates slaves in the Confederate States. While the act itself is limited in that it doesn't outlaw slavery, nor make liberated slaves citizens, it proves to be a turning point. The Proclamation allows black men into the army and navy. By the war's end, nearly 200,000 black men will have fought for freedom.



Ascension, Assumption, Terre Bonne, La Fourche, St. Mary, St. Martin, and Orleans, including the City of Orleans), Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Virginia (except the forty-eight counties designated as West Virginia, and also the counties of Berkeley, Accomac, Northampton, Elizabeth City, York, Princess Ann, and Norfolk, including the cities of Norfolk and Portsmouth), and which excepted parts are for the present left precisely as if this Proclamation were not issued.

And by virtue of the power and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that **ALL PERSONS HELD AS SLAVES** within said designated States and parts of States ARE, AND HENCEFORWARD **SHALL BE FREE!** and that the Executive Government of the United States, including the Military and Naval Authorities thereof, will RECOGNIZE AND MAINTAIN THE FREEDOM of said persons.

And I hereby enjoin upon the people so declared to be free, to abstain from all violence, UNLESS IN NECESSARY SELF-DEFENCE, and I recommend to them that in all cases, when allowed, they LABOR FAITHFULLY FOR REASONABLE WAGES.

And I further declare and make known that such persons of suitable condition will be received into the armed service of the United States, to garrison forts, positions, stations, and other places, and to man vessels of all sorts in said service.

And upon this act, SINCERELY BELIEVED TO BE AN ACT OF JUSTICE, warranted by the Constitution, upon military necessity, I invoke the considerate judgment of mankind, and the gracious favor of Almighty God.

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my name, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

[L. S.] Done at the City of Washington, this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and of the Independence of the United States the eighty-seventh.

A. Lincoln

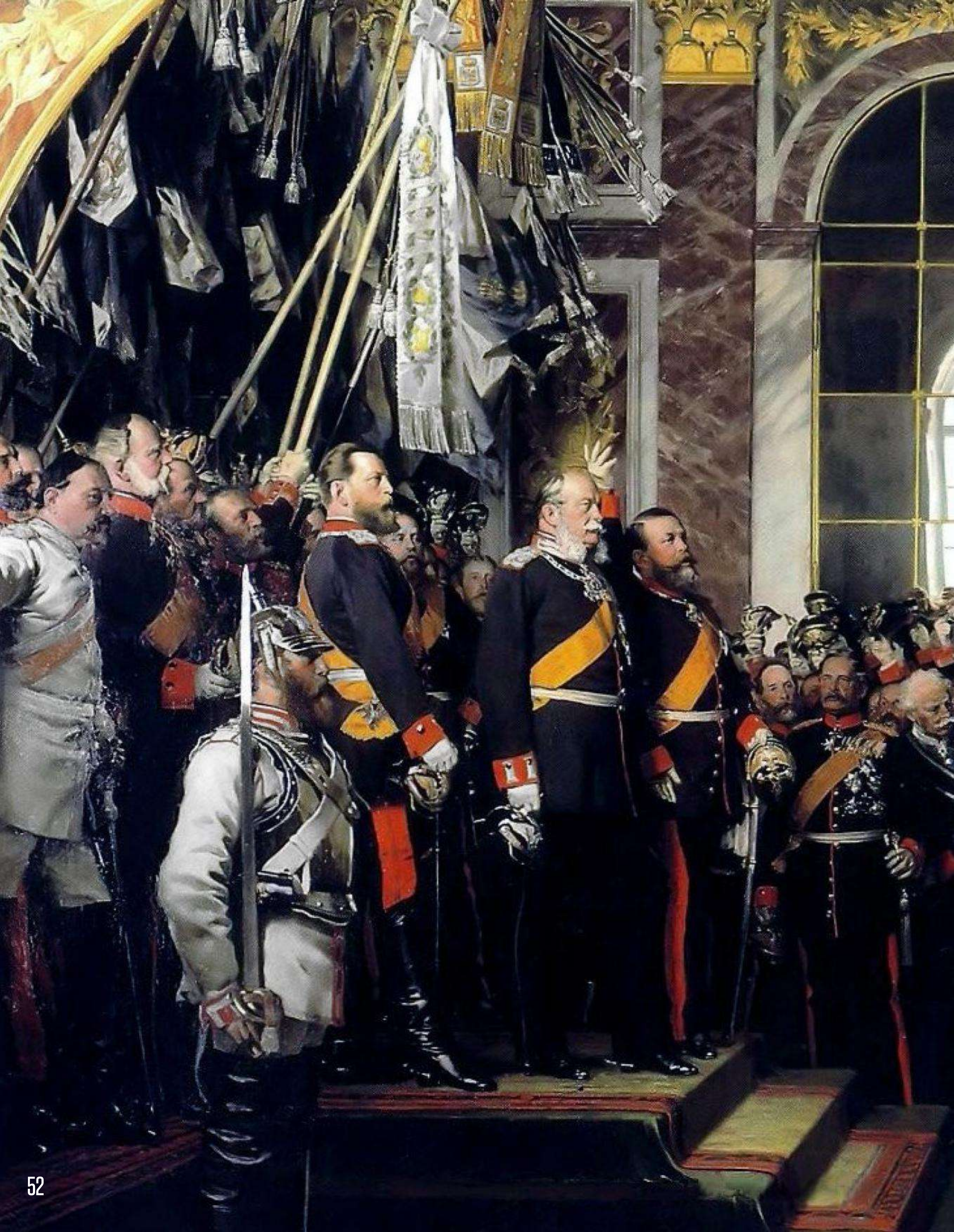
By the President.

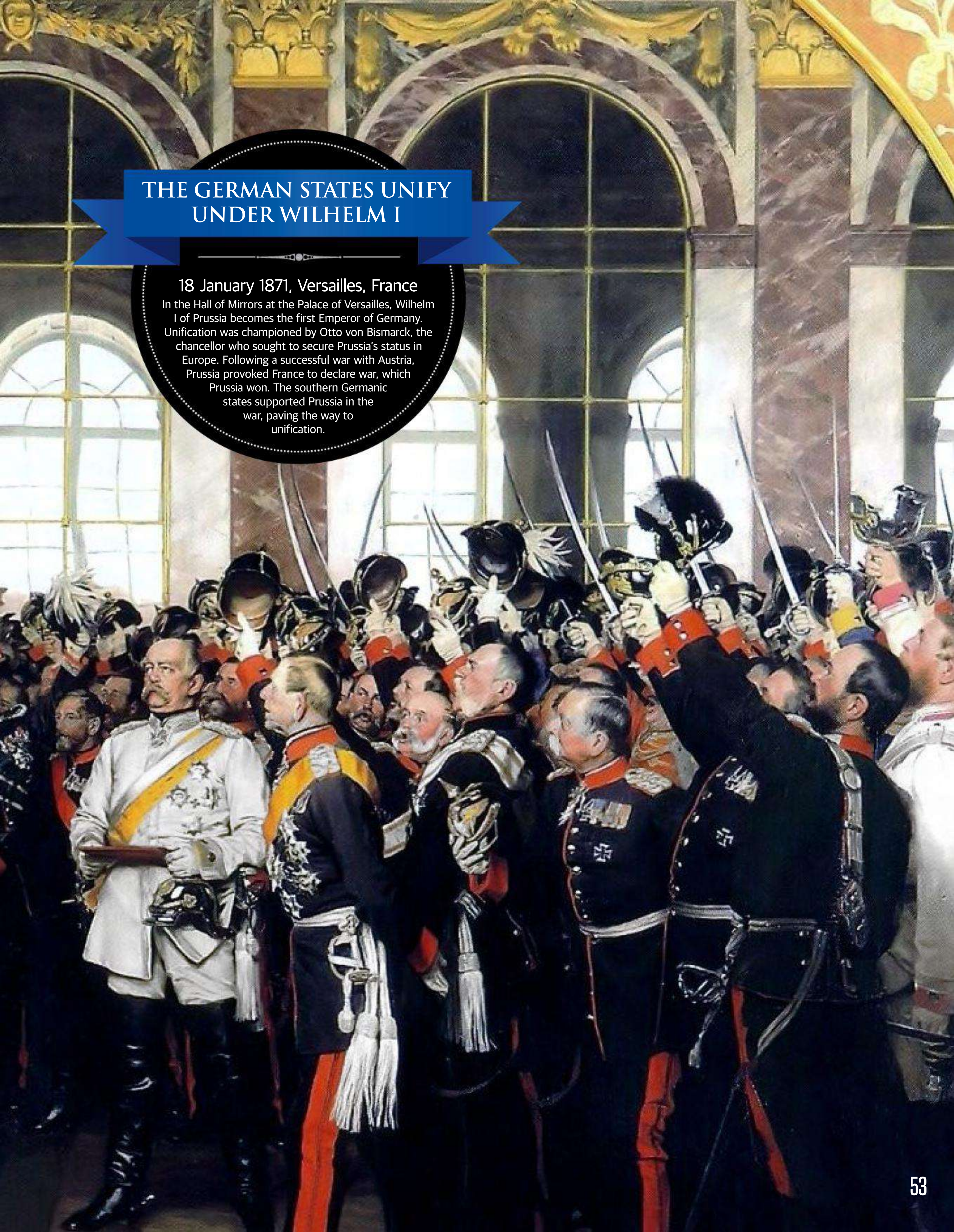
William H. Seward

Secretary of State.

W. Roberts, Del. sc.

Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1864, by R. A. Dimmick, in the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the United States for the





THE GERMAN STATES UNIFY UNDER WILHELM I

18 January 1871, Versailles, France

In the Hall of Mirrors at the Palace of Versailles, Wilhelm I of Prussia becomes the first Emperor of Germany. Unification was championed by Otto von Bismarck, the chancellor who sought to secure Prussia's status in Europe. Following a successful war with Austria, Prussia provoked France to declare war, which Prussia won. The southern Germanic states supported Prussia in the war, paving the way to unification.

THE MILITANT BATTLE FOR WOMEN'S RIGHTS

How the fight for women's rights evolved from peaceful demonstrations to increasingly violent actions as the suffragettes battled to be given a voice

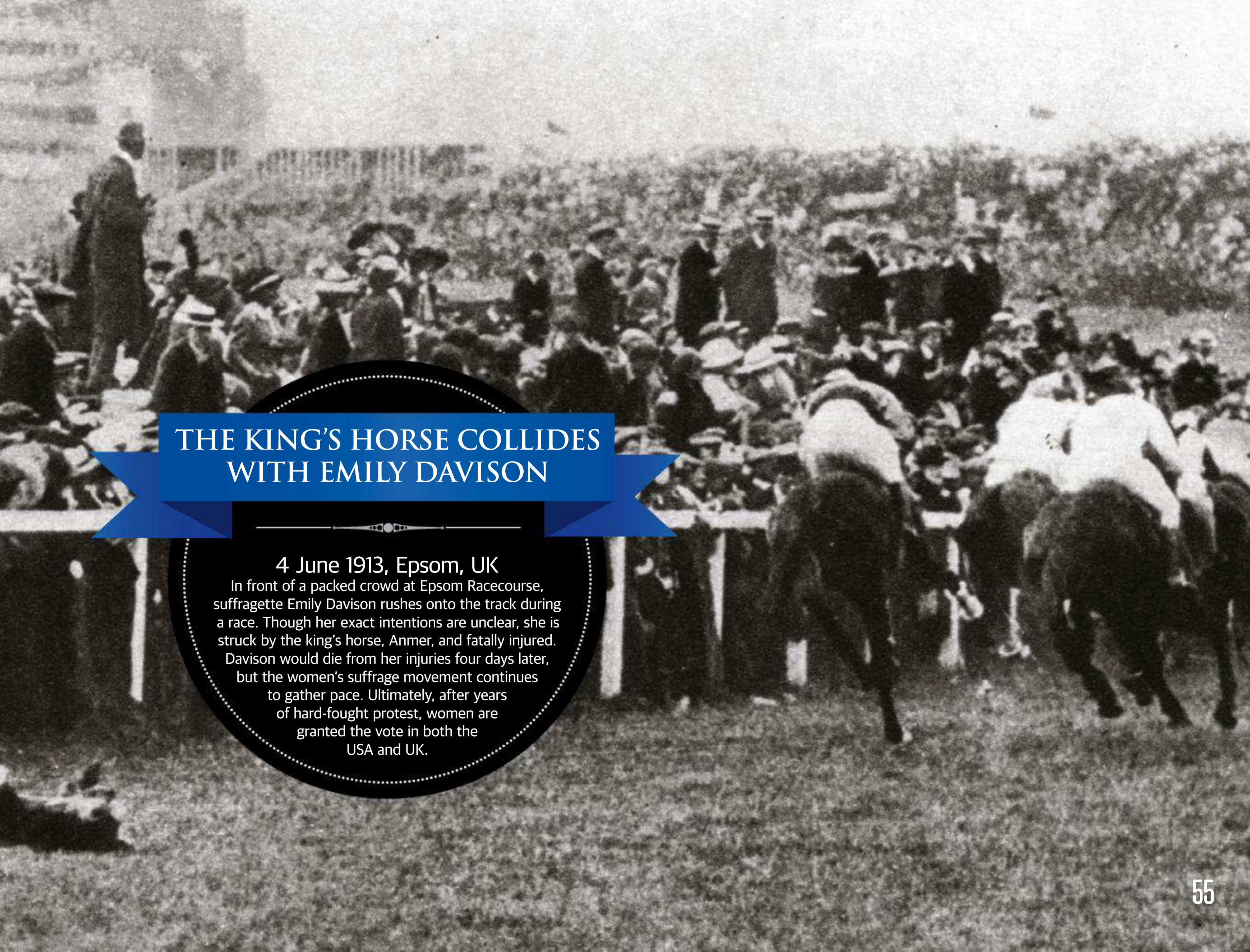
On 4 June 1913, the king's horse was at the Tattenham Corner of the Epsom Racecourse, third from last in the flat-sprint race. As it rounded the corner, its huge limbs pumping back and forth like a piston, a woman ducked under the spectators' barrier and darted onto the middle of the track, directly into the horse's path. Her name was Emily Wilding Davison and her death would be the latest outrage in an ever-more violent struggle for women's rights.

The actions of the lone suffragette would create totally opposed but equally emotional points of view. Newspapers vilified her and hate mail was sent to the hospital where she remained in a coma for four days before passing. Meanwhile, Christabel Pankhurst, living in Paris to avoid arrest, hailed Davison as, "a soldier fallen in a war of freedom." A tremendous funeral procession was arranged that used the religious-tinged language that Davison had so often used to describe her efforts. This was no ordinary struggle; this was a war, a crusade.

The fight for women's suffrage had begun decades before Davison became the movement's martyr. The issue had been first raised in Parliament to general disdain in 1832, but it had gathered momentum in the early years of the 20th century. Organisations sprang up all over the country, but disapproval also accompanied the movement, with many women believing that these suffragettes were either going too far or were simply misguided. One of these women called Buckingham Palace home. In 1870, Queen Victoria wrote:

"The Queen is most anxious to enlist everyone who can speak or write to join in checking this mad wicked folly of 'Women's Rights', with all its attendant horrors, on which her poor sex is bent, forgetting every sense of womanly feeling and propriety - God created men and women different - then let them remain each in their own position - Woman would become the most hateful, heartless, and disgusting of human beings were she allowed to unsex herself; and where would be the protection which man was intended to give to the weaker sex?"

In spite of the Queen's anxiety, a united front was formed when the National Union of Women's Suffrage Societies (NUWSS) formed in 1897, with the formidable Millicent Garrett Fawcett at its head. Committed to peaceful protest, Fawcett worked tirelessly for decades at the head of the NUWSS. She began speaking on the subject of women's suffrage in the late 1860s and steadily rose to a position of authority. However, by the late 1880s there was a clear division between Fawcett and the woman who would



THE KING'S HORSE COLLIDES WITH EMILY DAVISON

4 June 1913, Epsom, UK

In front of a packed crowd at Epsom Racecourse, suffragette Emily Davison rushes onto the track during a race. Though her exact intentions are unclear, she is struck by the king's horse, Anmer, and fatally injured. Davison would die from her injuries four days later, but the women's suffrage movement continues to gather pace. Ultimately, after years of hard-fought protest, women are granted the vote in both the USA and UK.

eventually lead the militant front: the equally as celebrated as notorious Emmeline Pankhurst.

Together with her daughters Christabel, Sylvia and Adela, Emmeline Pankhurst would be the driving force of the militant suffragettes, sometimes working in tandem with the more peaceful suffragists but often deeply opposed to them. Driven and relentless, her involvement with the suffragist movement began in the 1880s and she quickly graduated from hosting gatherings at her home to founding the Women's Franchise League in 1889. She and her husband Richard campaigned with the Independent Labour Party and After Richard's death in 1898 from stomach ulcers, Emmeline threw herself completely into the cause.

Emmeline Pankhurst was less concerned with hearts and minds than with grabbing the British people's attention by any means necessary. At first, she wanted to work with the Independent Labour Party (ILP), but it became clear the party was not willing to take the risks. This setback only made her more determined than ever, though, and on 10 October 1903 she created the Women's Social and Political Union (WSPU). Their motto was "Deeds not words." Time would prove just how much to heart they took this motto.

Emmeline Pankhurst was a passionate leader of the women's rights movement

First militant step

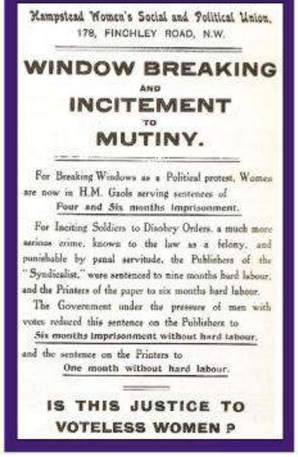
On 2 February 1904, Christabel Pankhurst entered the Free Trade Hall in Manchester where Liberal MP Winston Churchill was due to speak. When she asked for an amendment on women's suffrage, she was dismissed. Pankhurst wrote that she considered this "The first militant step - the hardest to me, because it was the first." Churchill would be persistently targeted by the suffragettes, who went so far as to write a manifesto opposing him and his leadership. The man who would lead Europe to victory in WWII would prove to be a consistent thorn in their side.

Christabel Pankhurst would be as vital and fierce a part of the suffragette movement as her mother. She took her first militant step by attending another Free Trade Hall meeting in 1905, this time with her devoted fellow suffragette, the deceptively shy Annie Kenney. Pankhurst and Kenney were ejected from the meeting by an outraged crowd and arrested for assaulting police officers. They admitted the charge, explained their cause and refused to pay the fine. They were promptly sent to prison and the refusal to take any option other than imprisonment became a feature of successive suffragette trials. They demanded the same rights as political prisoners, specifically the first division cells, but were refused.

Nationwide activities were organised from the WSPU's headquarters in London, all aimed at creating a very public spectacle. In 1906, ten women were arrested after attempting to enter the Houses of Parliament. When the WSPU members were released from prison, Millicent Garrett Fawcett held a banquet in their honour at the Savoy Hotel. At this time, much of the WSPU and NUWSS' efforts were spent on demonstrating the sheer number of people who felt passionately about the issue.

WHAT WAS THE WSPU?

- The Woman's Social and Political Union was founded at the Pankhurst home on 10 October 1903.
- It was founded to campaign for votes for women.
- Their repeated motto was "Deeds, not words."
- They initially tried to work within the political system.
- From 1905, they set out to shock with public displays.
- Their only concern was suffrage and not a broader campaign for rights, leading to splits in the group.


Hampstead Women's Social and Political Union,
178, FINCHLEY ROAD, N.W.

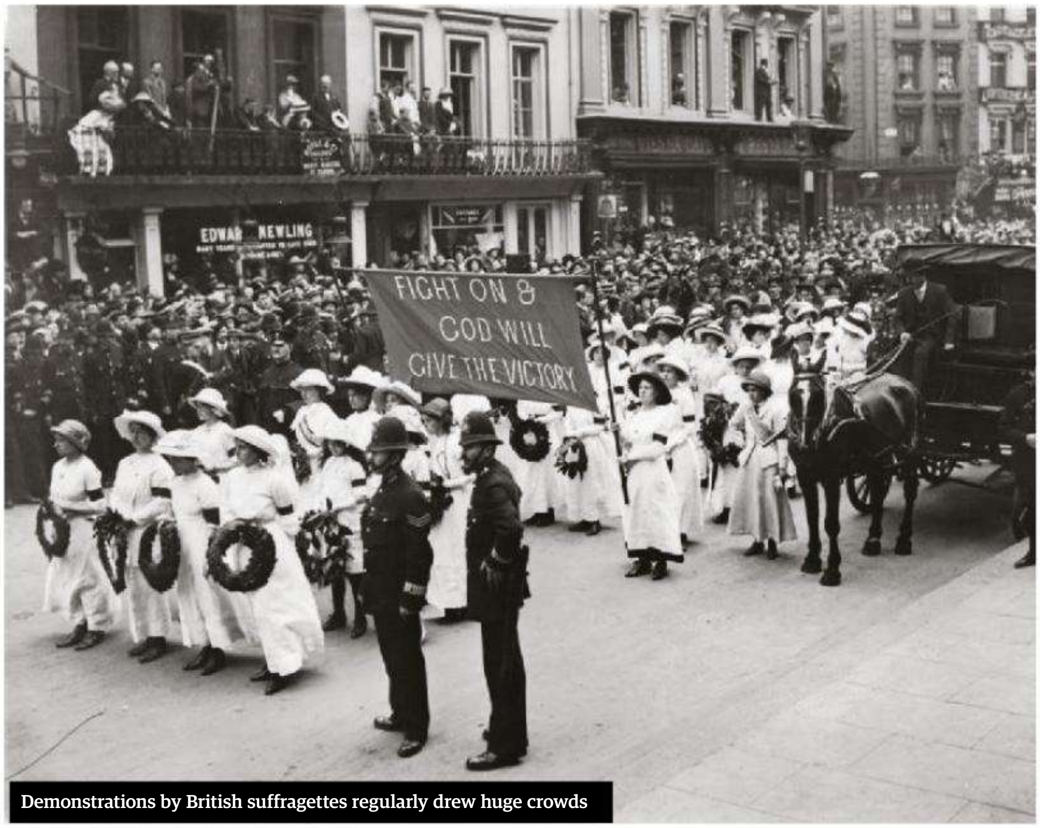
WINDOW BREAKING
AND
INCITEMENT
TO
MUTINY.

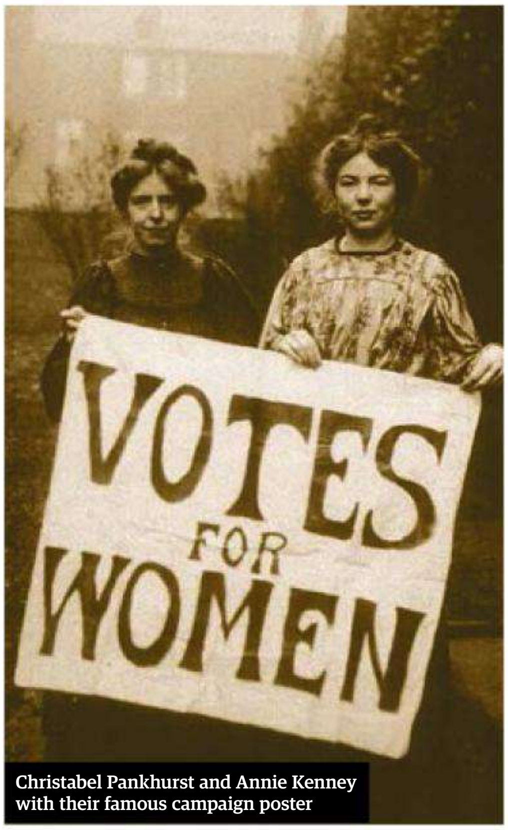
For Breaking Windows as a Political protest, Women are now in H.M. Gaols serving sentences of
Four and Six months imprisonment.

For Inciting Soldiers to Disobey Orders, a much more serious crime, known to the law as a felony, and punishable by penal servitude, the Publishers of the "Syndicalist," were sentenced to nine months hard labour, and the Printers of the paper to six months hard labour.

The Government under the pressure of men with votes reduced this sentence on the Publishers to
Six months imprisonment without hard labour,
and the sentence on the Printers to
One month without hard labour.

IS THIS JUSTICE TO VOTELESS WOMEN ?


FIGHT ON & GOD WILL GIVE THE VICTORY
EDWAR NEWLING
Demonstrations by British suffragettes regularly drew huge crowds



Christabel Pankhurst and Annie Kenney with their famous campaign poster

LEADERS OF THE SUFFRAGETTES

Christabel Pankhurst

22 September 1880 – 13 February 1958

Christabel studied law in Manchester and used her expertise to great effect; issuing subpoenas for Lloyd George and Herbert Gladstone at her court appearances. Her views of women's suffrage were different to those of her sisters who had a more socialist outlook and eventually, she and her mother severed ties with them. A disguised Christabel fled to Paris to avoid arrest in 1912, but continued her role at the head of the WSPU and returned in 1914 to join her mother in the war effort. She moved to the United States and became an evangelist, briefly returning in the 1930s when she was appointed a Dame Commander of the British Empire.

Emmeline Pankhurst

15 July 1858 – 14 June 1928

After spending her youth attempting to open her own boutiques, Emmeline and her husband Richard became involved with the Labour Party. She grew frustrated with the lack of progress regarding women's suffrage and dedicated herself to the cause. She created the WSPU in 1903, backed by her daughters, and directed the group toward an increasingly militant strategy. She did not hesitate to distance herself from anyone who opposed her, including her own daughters. Despite her fragile health, she worked tirelessly and was imprisoned several times. When WWI broke out she redirected her attentions to the war effort. After the war she travelled to Canada but struggled financially, before returning to England where her health finally failed her.

Emily Wilding Davison

11 October 1872 – 8 June 1913

The youngest of nine children, she received a first class degree from Oxford but was dissatisfied with her life as a teacher, finding her calling as a member of the WSPU. From 1908 onward she threw herself into the increasingly militant activities, first imprisoned in 1909. She could be relied upon to take part in any of the group's more dangerous activities but was seen as a wild card. Her determination led to several well-publicised instances of brutality. By 1913 her health had begun to suffer from the hunger strikes and force feeding, and her family had begun to worry about her. While it is unclear whether or not Emily knew her plan for Epsom would kill her, she was determined to make history.

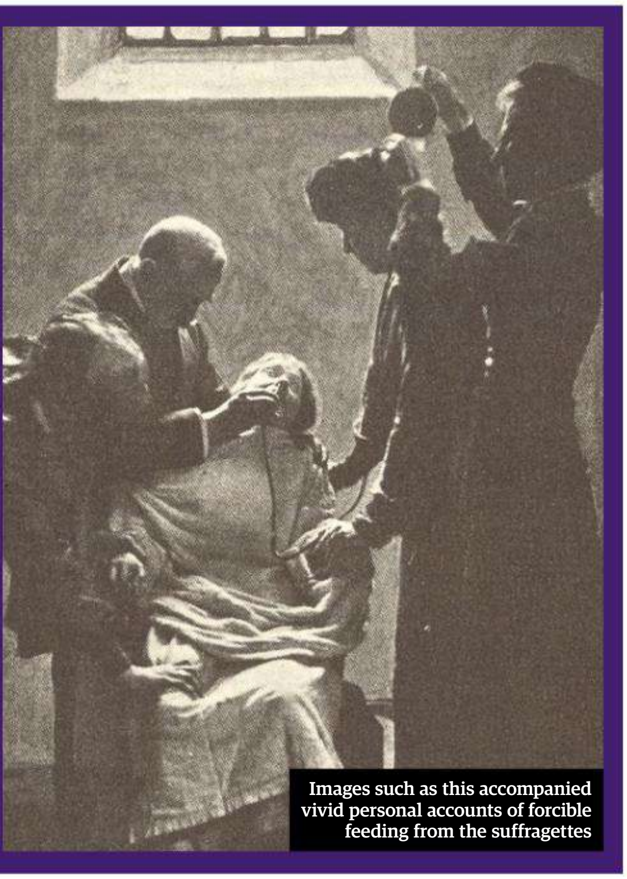
Millicent Garrett Fawcett

11 June 1847 – 5 August 1929

Fawcett believed in peaceful protest. She held lectures for women at her home and began speaking in public, although she was so nervous that she would get ill beforehand. Unlike Emmeline Pankhurst, her campaigning was not limited to suffrage and she was active in several other human-rights causes. As president of the NUWSS she was at first sympathetic to the militant WSPU. It was only when they became actively violent that she declared privately that they were doing more harm than good. When the war broke out she refused to support pacifist groups but continued her work with the suffragists.

HUNGER STRIKES

Hunger strikes began in 1909, when Marion Wallace Dunlop refused to eat after she was not treated as a political prisoner. She was released 91 hours later, but the practice of forcible feeding began soon after. The first case took place in September 1909 and quickly became common practice. The suffragettes protested this savage treatment and arrests, but forcible feeding continued. The sanitary conditions of the equipment used and the marked differences between the treatment of wealthy and poor suffragettes was controversial. The government initiated a cat-and-mouse law in 1913, which freed hunger-strike prisoners whose health was in danger, but brought them back to complete their sentences once they were deemed healthy enough. The practice continued until the outbreak of WWI.



Images such as this accompanied vivid personal accounts of forcible feeding from the suffragettes

When signed petitions had proved to accomplish little, marches and parades were organised, including the NUWSS' 'Mud March' in February 1907, in which over 3,000 women walked from Hyde Park to Exeter Hall. The government's response was to get these women off the streets and out of sight as quickly as possible, often with force. The brutal tactics used in response to peaceful demonstrations would stoke the fires of resentment.

Although Fawcett admired their zeal, Emmeline and Christabel Pankhurst's unwavering belief in their own decisions meant that the WSPU was drifting further apart from the NUWSS. By 1907, she and Christabel announced that they would take sole leadership of the WSPU, causing a split in the party. When the departed members founded the Women's Freedom League, the cause of women's rights had another official organisation and there was a danger that the sheer number of groups would have a negative effect. The Pankhursts simply saw this as proof of their strife and issued a call to arms for the members who had remained with them. They were going to war.

Attacks and imprisonment

On 17 January 1908, London witnessed suffragettes chained to railings outside 10 Downing Street. The following day, Emmeline Pankhurst and Ellie Martel were savagely attacked by Liberal Party supporters who blamed them for a lost by-election. Pankhurst was thrown to the ground, surrounded by a crowd of furious men before being rescued by the police. She wrote: "'Poor souls', I thought, then I said suddenly: 'Are none of you men?'" In February, Christabel enacted a 'Trojan

WHAT WERE THE MOST MILITANT ACTIVITIES?

Glass smashing

In July 1909, suffragettes threw stones at the windows of 10 Downing Street to express their rage at the arrests following the rush on the House of Commons. By October, with the first forcible feedings taking place, organised window-smashing raids had begun. These displays fulfilled the early militant aims of bringing attention to their cause and to ensure a swift arrest. They also brought disapproval from more peacefully minded campaigners who felt this was vandalism and would do more harm than good.

Arson

Beginning with Emily Wilding Davison setting fire to a pillar-box in December 1911, unsanctioned by the Pankhursts, arson would go on to be one of the most striking methods of militant protest. Following Davison's death in 1913, arson attacks were carried out all over the country. Suffragettes such as Lillian Lenton would target empty buildings and warehouses, determined that no lives be put at risk but that the situation would become utterly impossible for the government.

Hatchet throwing

Prime Minister Herbert Asquith's visit to Dublin in July 1912 would be an eventful one. Mary Leigh (who had thrown stones at 10 Downing Street), Gladys Evans, Jennie Baines and Mabel Capper were found guilty of "having committed serious outrages", which included throwing a hatchet at Asquith's carriage and attempting to set fire to the Theatre Royal where he was due to speak. Evans and Leigh were sentenced to hard labour, which drew an outraged reaction from the WSPU. The condemned were defiant.

Horse' manoeuvre, with 20 suffragettes hiding in a van driven to the House of Commons before all jumping out to face the police. In 1908, the fearsome Flora Drummond led a team of suffragettes on a steamboat along the Thames to invite MPs sitting on the Palace of Westminster Terrace to the demonstration on 21 June. The demonstration saw 30,000 suffragettes take to the streets and drew 500,000 spectators.

The consequence of these public protests was imprisonment. As more and more suffragettes were put into prison, more controversy arose over their treatment. Lady Constance Lytton wrote of the terrible hygiene, including dirty clothes, vermin and a toilet pot emptied once a day. The prison governors denied any wrongdoing as vehemently as the suffragettes accused them of it. Emmeline Pankhurst herself was arrested twice in 1908. In February, she led 13 suffragettes to the House of Commons to defy the Tumultuous Petitions Act. She knew she would be arrested and her fragile health declined rapidly once inside. However, her determination was limitless. She was summoned to the Bow Street police station in October after publishing a pamphlet urging suffragettes to 'Rush the House Of Commons!' Rather than going straight there, she told the police that she would be busy until six o'clock the next day. When she and Flora Drummond took taxis to the Bow Street station, a Liberal MP sent a lavish dinner from the Savoy Hotel to the station for the pair.

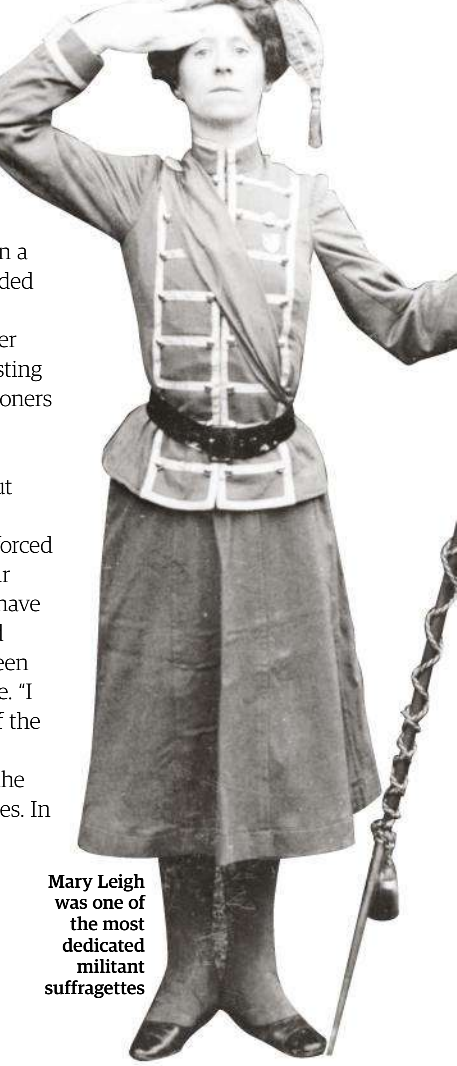
Political prisoners?

This civility was a rare exception, though. 1909 would see a radical change in the battleground as both sides refused to give any quarter. In July, a group of suffragettes threw stones at the windows of the Home Office, the Privy Council and the Treasury. Arrested on 24 June for defacing the House of Commons, where she used a rubber stamp to print an excerpt from the Bill of Rights, Marion Wallace Dunlop was sent to prison. When her request to be treated as a political prisoner was denied, Dunlop began a hunger strike and, after 91 hours without food, it was decided she should be released for her own safety. On 13 August, Edward VII's private secretary sent a note to Prime Minister Asquith. "His Majesty would be glad to know why the existing methods which must obviously exist for dealing with prisoners who refuse nourishment, should not be adopted." Forcible feeding had effectively been ordered.

WSPU organiser Laura Ainsworth wrote to Dunlop about her own experiences of being force-fed in Birmingham in September of that year. She described how her head was forced back, her mouth forced open, and tube pushed "down your mouth about 18 inches; while this is being done you first have a very great tickling sensation, then a choking feeling, and then you feel quite stunned." A gag was then forced between her teeth, and "about a pint" of food poured down the tube. "I know I must have looked as if I was being hurt because of the wardresses' faces", wrote Ainsworth.

The practice of forcible feeding caused fierce debate in the press and became another rallying point for the suffragettes. In

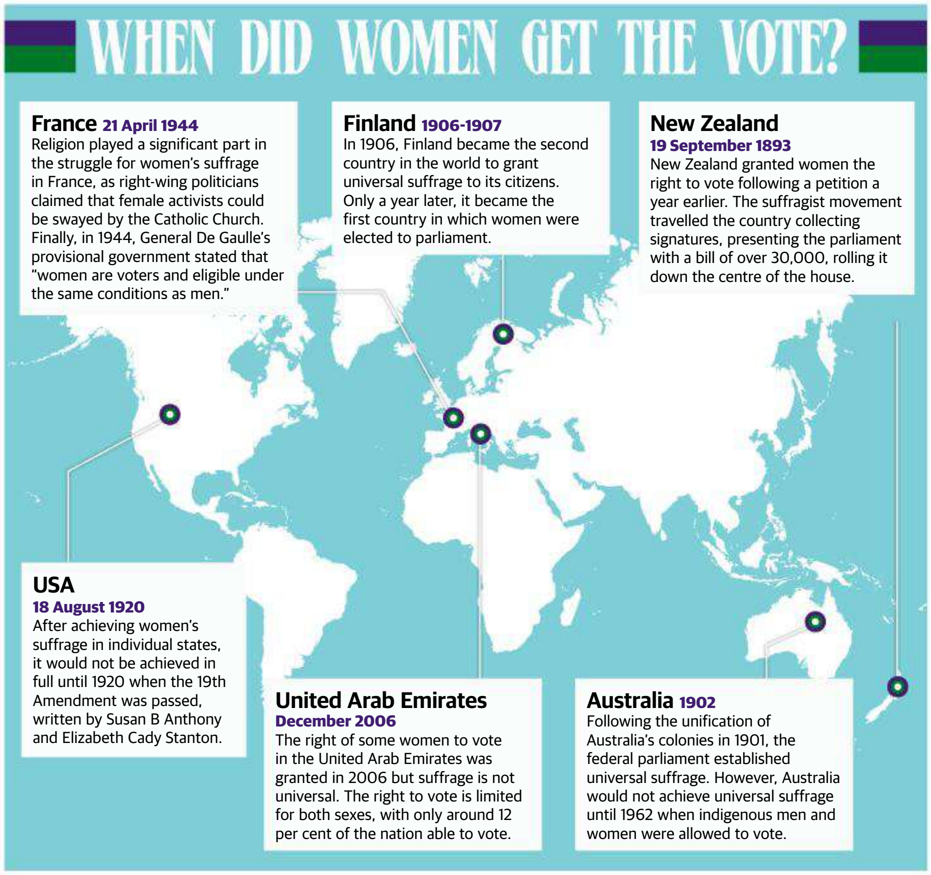
> "We have blown up the Chancellor of the Exchequer's house to wake him up"



Mary Leigh was one of the most dedicated militant suffragettes

Bombing Lloyd George's house

On 18 February 1912, the suffragettes' arson campaign led them to a house being built for David Lloyd George. Two bombs were set on timers in the empty house, one going off before the workers arrived that morning. The second remained unexploded. Emmeline Pankhurst took responsibility for the act, stating: "We have blown up the Chancellor of the Exchequer's house to wake him up." The police could not prove who planted the bombs, but sent Pankhurst to prison after she accepted responsibility.



WHEN DID WOMEN GET THE VOTE?

France **21 April 1944**
Religion played a significant part in the struggle for women's suffrage in France, as right-wing politicians claimed that female activists could be swayed by the Catholic Church. Finally, in 1944, General De Gaulle's provisional government stated that "women are voters and eligible under the same conditions as men."

Finland **1906-1907**
In 1906, Finland became the second country in the world to grant universal suffrage to its citizens. Only a year later, it became the first country in which women were elected to parliament.

New Zealand
19 September 1893
New Zealand granted women the right to vote following a petition a year earlier. The suffragist movement travelled the country collecting signatures, presenting the parliament with a bill of over 30,000, rolling it down the centre of the house.

USA
18 August 1920
After achieving women's suffrage in individual states, it would not be achieved in full until 1920 when the 19th Amendment was passed, written by Susan B Anthony and Elizabeth Cady Stanton.

United Arab Emirates
December 2006
The right of some women to vote in the United Arab Emirates was granted in 2006 but suffrage is not universal. The right to vote is limited for both sexes, with only around 12 per cent of the nation able to vote.

Australia **1902**
Following the unification of Australia's colonies in 1901, the federal parliament established universal suffrage. However, Australia would not achieve universal suffrage until 1962 when indigenous men and women were allowed to vote.

DAVISON'S CRUSADE

Conciliation Bill torpedoed
21 November 1911
Lloyd George puts paid to any hope of the Conciliation Bill passing by announcing that he has "torpedoed" it. The truce agreed to by the militant suffragettes is over.

Starting fires
15 December 1911
Emily Wilding Davison is arrested for putting a flaming piece of linen into a pillar-box. She had announced her plans and was waiting to be arrested.

WSPU heads arrested
5 March 1912
Following a protracted window smashing campaign, the government arrests the heads of the WSPU, including the Pethick-Lawrences and Emmeline Pankhurst. Christabel Pankhurst flees to France.

Davison attempts martyrdom
4 July 1912
During a commotion in Holloway Prison, a desperate Davison throws herself off a balcony – twice – in an attempt at martyrdom as "some desperate protest." She survives.

Reform Bill removed
January 1913
The Speaker of the House of Commons declares the Reform Bill will have to be removed and submitted in a new form. Pankhurst retaliates by declaring her plan for "guerillist" attacks.

House bomb
18 February 1913
Emmeline Pankhurst takes responsibility for the bombing of an empty house belonging to Lloyd George. She states that Emily Wilding Davison had planted it, but there is no evidence of this.

Cat-and-mouse law
2 April 1913
The government introduces a cruel new scheme to handle prisoners made dangerously ill by hunger striking and forcible feeding, releasing them until they are healthy enough to return.

Derby Day tragedy
4 June 1913
Emily Wilding Davison runs in front of the king's horse at Epsom and sustains terrible injuries. She dies four days later and becomes a martyr for the cause.

Funeral procession
14 June 1913
A funeral procession for Davison takes place in London, attended by thousands, before her body is taken home to Northumberland.

MAPLES
VOTES FOR WOMEN
SIR RUFUS ISAACS JUSTIFIES VIOLENCE

British suffragettes became increasingly visible in the years leading up to WWI

Emmeline Pankhurst being arrested in 1907 and, inserted, a picture of her in prison

> "Emmeline Pankhurst was less concerned with hearts and minds than with grabbing the British people's attention by any means necessary"

a concerted effort to become more visible to the public and to ensure arrest, a glass-smashing campaign began. In October 1909, 12 suffragettes were arrested for smashing panes of glass in Newcastle and by November the imprisoned women were reporting incidents on the horrors of forcible feeding while in prison. It was splashed all over the front pages, but opinion was still divided.

In this combustible situation women like Emily Wilding Davison became notorious. Davison was one of the most dedicated of the militant suffragettes and prone to spontaneous action, and it was clear that even the Pankhursts endorsed her with a degree of caution. In Strangeways Prison in October 1909, Davison blocked the door to her cell, at which point the prison guards fired a fire hose at her through the window of her cell, after which she was force-fed in another example of institutionalised brutality.

Davison was just one of the many women who reported the violent treatment that they were put through. Lady Constance Lytton was determined to test the claim that there was no difference in the treatment of prisoners depending on their class. Having previously been arrested and deemed not healthy enough for forcible feeding on account of her heart, she was arrested in disguise under the name of Jane Wharton. The prison doctor determined that 'Jane' was perfectly healthy and ready for forcible feeding. Her brother, Lord Lytton, wrote a letter to *The Times* newspaper detailing exactly what his sister had been through. It was embarrassing for the establishment, but not enough for the status quo to change.

In 1910, it looked like a solution might be near. The Conciliation Committee had been formed with the purpose of finding some middle ground under the guidance of Millicent Garrett Fawcett's NUWSS and the WSPU agreed to a truce. The Conciliation Bill passed two readings in the Commons but when Parliament broke down on 18 November with no progress on the bill, Emmeline Pankhurst made good on her promise to march on the House of Commons with 300 women. They were met by a violent police force; the unarmed suffragettes were punched, kicked, hurled to the ground and groped by officers. 200 women were arrested and two died as a result of injuries sustained, including Pankhurst's sister Mary Jane Clarke. Despite the national press coverage of this shocking brutality, Churchill refused to allow an investigation into it, describing the suffragettes' claims as "a copious fountain of mendacity."

In a surprising show of restraint, Pankhurst decided to keep the truce until the new Parliament was in session but when Lloyd George callously announced that he had 'torpedoed' the Conciliation Bill, militancy was not only back on, it had escalated. With broken windows and arson dominating the headlines, the NUWSS despaired at the negative publicity the WSPU was creating. It was also proving a problem for the Pankhursts. In May 1912, key WSPU leaders, including Emmeline and Christabel Pankhurst, were charged with "conspiracy to incite certain persons to commit malicious damage to property." Christabel fled to France in disguise, while the others took their sentences.

There was an enormous outcry to transfer the suffragettes to political prisoners. The furore increased in July when Emily Wilding Davison attempted to kill herself by hurling herself from the stairs in the prison block during a 'siege.' Her idea was "that one big tragedy might save many others", but netting prevented her from achieving her goal.

Violence explodes

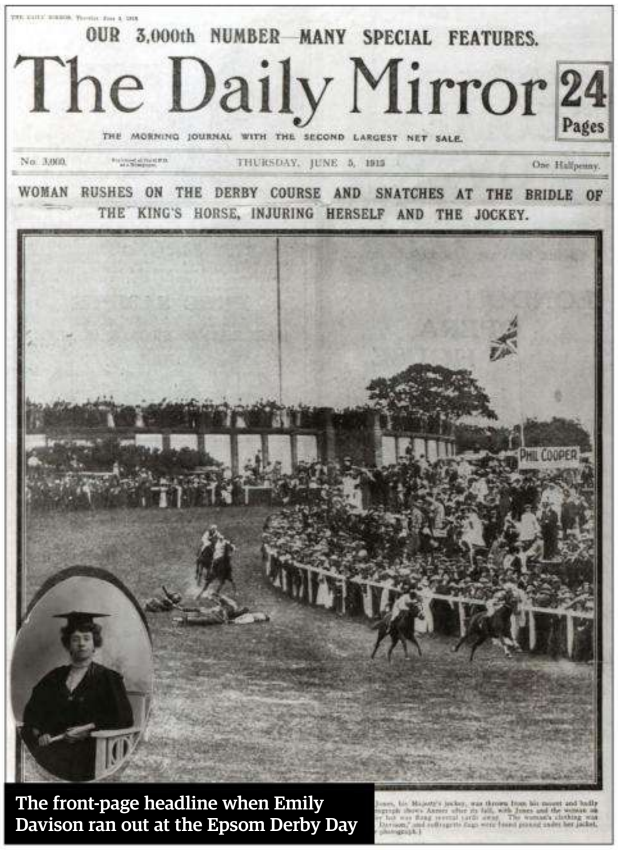
Later that month came the suffragette 'gunpowder plot' as four women attempted to set fire to the Theatre Royal following Lloyd George's visit. In a speech at the Royal Albert Hall on 17 October 1912, Emmeline compared the suffragettes to the rebellion forces in Ulster, declaring "Take me if you dare." Meanwhile, the NUWSS created ties with the Labour Party, which had become the first party to back women's suffrage. However, in January 1913 it was announced that the Reform Bill would have to be entered in a new form because it had changed so much from its original state. The WSPU commenced a new stage of its militancy and targeted the empty property of the wealthy for destruction. Explosives were left in empty houses, for which Emmeline Pankhurst took responsibility.

Noting that the health of force-fed inmates was quickly declining, the government enacted the so-called 'Cat-and-mouse' law. This meant that a prisoner who was being forcibly fed could be released if their health was a serious concern, but that they must return to prison as soon as they were deemed healthy enough to serve the rest of their sentence, to be put through the whole ordeal again. The shocking nature of this policy was widely protested but to no avail.

It was in June 1913 that Emily Wilding Davison threw herself in front of the king's horse at Epsom. The impact on both the suffragettes and their enemies was profound and the papers reported on 'The Suffragist Outrage at Epsom'.

The WSPU continued to shed members, as Christabel Pankhurst decided that her sister Sylvia, who had expressed disagreement with her views, could no longer be a part of the group. Their youngest sister Adela had already been forced out. However, it was clear that things could not go on. The WSPU membership was shrinking, either through desertion or incarceration, and it seemed as though no progress was being made. Then, on 28 July 1914, everything changed.

With the outbreak of the First World War, Emmeline and Christabel's goals suddenly shifted. They were determined to support Great Britain and ensured that members fought for their country as fiercely as they had for suffrage. The most vocal supporters of women's suffrage became some of the loudest war effort campaigners and they threw their support behind the war effort, with women working in jobs they had only shortly before been deemed unsuitable for. It might have taken something as dramatic as a world war, but when the time came for a vote on suffrage in 1918, the nation's opinion of the suffragettes had changed and women over the age of 30 got the right to vote. In 1928 the dreams of the suffragettes were realised when women finally received equal voting rights with men. Their voice had finally been heard.



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WOMAN RUSHES ON THE DERBY COURSE AND SNATCHES AT THE BRIDLE OF THE KING'S HORSE, INJURING HERSELF AND THE JOCKEY.

PHIL COOPER

The front-page headline when Emily Davison ran out at the Epsom Derby Day

© Alamy, Getty

FRANZ FERDINAND IS ASSASSINATED

28 June 1914, Sarajevo, Austria-Hungary

The royal couple of Archduke Franz Ferdinand and Sophie, Duchess of Hohenberg, jovially greet well-wishers in the Serbian capital of Sarajevo. Later that day, Slavic nationalists would assassinate the duke, plunging an already fragile Europe into crisis. Austria-Hungary, backed up by the German Empire, would issue an ultimatum to Serbia that would plunge the world into the bloodiest war ever seen.

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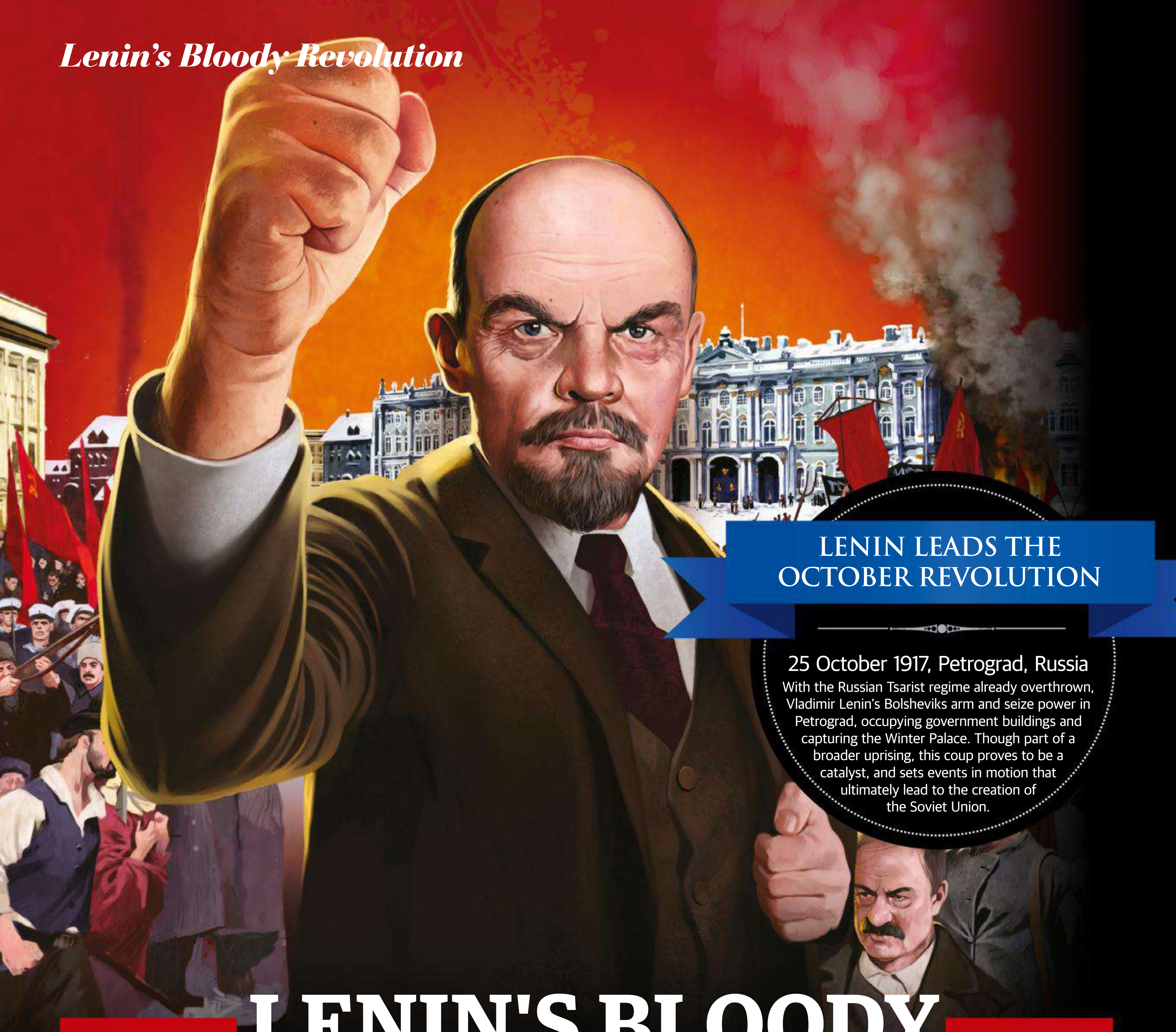


LENIN LEADS THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION

25 October 1917, Petrograd, Russia

With the Russian Tsarist regime already overthrown, Vladimir Lenin's Bolsheviks arm and seize power in Petrograd, occupying government buildings and capturing the Winter Palace. Though part of a broader uprising, this coup proves to be a catalyst, and sets events in motion that ultimately lead to the creation of the Soviet Union.

LENIN'S BLOODY REVOLUTION

Years of civil unrest came to a head in October 1917, as Lenin rode a revolutionary wave into Saint Petersburg and turned society upside down

КРАСНАЯ ГВАРДІЯ
ЗАВОДЪ
ВУЛКАНЪ
II. ГР.

Members of the Red Guard in October 1917

Guns roared, thousands of voices yelled from the streets in defiance, and on 23 October 1917, the massed supporters of Vladimir Lenin laid siege to Saint Petersburg's Winter Palace, the site of an ineffectual government, and the capstone event of a socialist revolution. For Lenin and his troops it was both a political and an ideological victory: the triumphant end to years of secretive theorising and plotting, many of them spent by Lenin in exile, before he returned to Russia to "liberate" his people. If the celebrations were short lived, the inversion of society to replace an autocracy with a socialist system was an extraordinary achievement.

Russia, even as late as the late-1800s, had seen a nobility of about a million presiding over a peasantry of 97 million; according to an 1897 census there was practically no middle class. Industry was overwhelmingly agricultural, with the peasantry working on land that belonged to the rich minority. An act of 1861 turned some of this land over to communal peasant ownership, but the government had provided compensation to the landowners, and the peasant communes were now responsible for the repayment of this debt to the government. These payments were abolished in 1905, but until then, the peasants were as beholden to their communes as they had been to the landowners. The population was also steadily increasing, which meant there wasn't enough land to go around, leading to unrest. The oil and railway industry booms of the industrial revolution happened slower and later in Russia than in other parts of Europe, but when they arrived they started to create a growing middle class more inclined towards western-style capitalist business interests than had hitherto been the Russian norm. Workers migrated to industrial areas, but while some official monitoring nominally took place, the overcrowded slum conditions workers had to endure were appalling.

> "POPULISM WAS ABANDONED, AND IN ITS PLACE, THE IDEAS OF A POLITICAL ANALYST CALLED KARL MARX BEGAN TO FIND FAVOUR"

Russia at this time was presided over by the tsar, whose rule was propped up by the army, the police, the Russian Orthodox Church, the land-owning nobility and the bureaucracy. Alexander II (1855-81) had brought in some reforms, such as elective assemblies to represent peasant agricultural and industrial workers in local government. Alexander III (1881-94), however, began to roll back these changes, and Nicholas II, the last tsar of Russia, disappointed many by sticking to that hard line. He considered any notion of societal reform "a senseless dream" and let it be known that he was resolutely committed to the principle of autocracy.

As early as the 1860s various seeds of revolutionary thought were beginning to be sown. Movements like The Populists began musing on a future moving away from a monolithic state and more towards a country with a multiplicity of mutually supportive communes. These idealistic notions hit something of a bump when students from the universities started taking the message out into the countryside and found the peasant agricultural labourers actually hostile to their ideas: thinking the students' well-intentioned notions ridiculous, lofty and unachievable. Populism was abandoned, and in its place, the ideas of a political analyst called Karl Marx began to find favour.

Marx was often frustrated at the way his followers simplified his complex writings and ran with them in directions he didn't approve of, but the key idea of his that people latched on to revolved around the control of the means of production. History, Marx believed, was a never-ending process of change in which particular social classes exploited the labour of everyone else and established dominance, only for their hegemony to become outmoded, after which they were naturally replaced by another up-and-coming class drawing power from unanticipated sources. They in turn would eventually be replaced for the same reasons, and so the cycle would continue.

By this process, the bourgeois (the middle class) in Russia would, according to the theory, replace the aristocracy, and only once that had happened would the proletariat (the working class) supersede the bourgeois in their own revolution. Rather than leaving these predicted

THE ROAD TO REVOLUTION

May 1896
Nicholas II is crowned tsar, making clear he'll continue the autocratic rule of Alexander III.

July 1903
The Russian Social Democrat party splits into two factions: the Bolsheviks, under Lenin, and the Mensheviks.

January 1905
Tsarist troops open fire on demonstrators in Saint Petersburg, causing widespread strikes. June sees a mutiny aboard Battleship Potemkin.

October 1905
Nicholas II ends the unrest by promising increased civil liberties for the proletariat. The Duma is formed.

July 1914
At the outbreak of war, Nicholas II assumes control of the Russian Army. His family come under the damaging influence of Rasputin.

February 1917
Protests turn to riots in Saint Petersburg. The city falls to insurgents; the Duma collapses into chaos.

March-April 1917
Nicholas II abdicates and the Provisional Government forms. Lenin returns and sets up a base in Saint Petersburg.

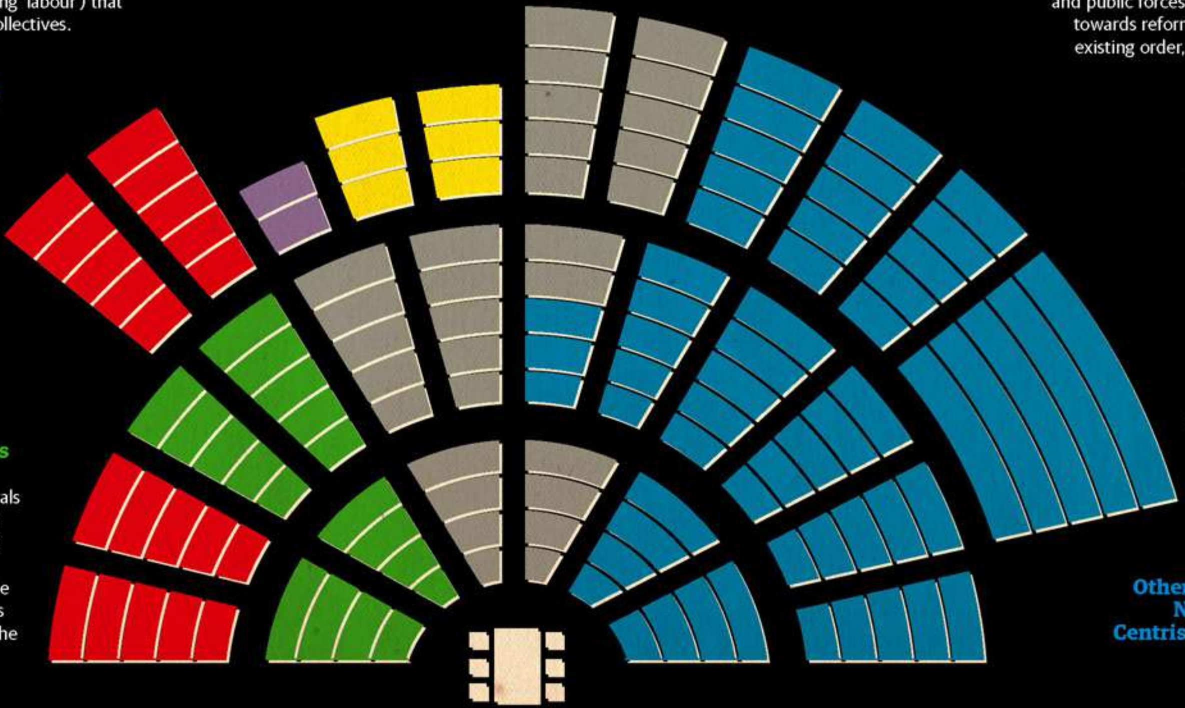
July 1917
Alexander Kerensky becomes prime minister of the government, but it remains largely powerless, lacking legitimisation.

October 1917
Bolsheviks take Saint Petersburg and storm the Winter Palace. Lenin controls Russia.

November 1917
In elections, the Bolsheviks lose. Clever politicking from Lenin sees his party hold onto and consolidate power.

THE STATE DUMA

The Duma was instituted to represent the voices of working people in 1905. As Lenin launched his revolution, its seats were occupied as follows:



Trudoviks - 10 seats
The Labour Group or 'Trudoviks' were a breakaway from the Socialist Revolutionaries, since the SR had refused to participate in the Duma. They were a moderate socialist party (the name 'Trudovik' meaning 'labour') that grew out of small worker collectives.

Bolsheviks - 15 seats
Lenin's faction of the Russian Social Democratic Party was committed to the overthrow of the Tsarist autocracy and the redistribution of power to the proletariat. Unlike the Mensheviks, the Bolsheviks still believed that a small ruling elite was necessary.

Progressists - 41 seats
The Progressive Party consisted of moderate liberals who believed the time was right for the bourgeois, not the proletariat, to assume control of Russia. Two of the party's prominent members would go on to be part of the Provisional Government.

Octobrists - 95 seats
The Union of October 17 was a non-revolutionary conservative liberal party looking for compromise and co-operation between the government and public forces. They were working towards reforms to strengthen the existing order, not to overthrow it.

Constitutional Democratic Party - 57 seats
Informally known as the 'Kadets', the Constitutional Democratic Party were liberals who had the support of professionals and academics. They were committed to workers' rights, through policies like the introduction of the eight-hour working day.

Others (Non-Russian National Groups, Centrists, Nationalists, Rightists) - 230

events to work themselves out in their own time, however, various groups intent on forcing the process started to come into existence. The Social Revolutionary movement grew out of Populism, still intent on establishing a vast mass of worker cooperatives. But the Russian Social Democrats were the ones that really ran with Marx's theories. Finding that they couldn't quite agree even among themselves, the Social Democrats soon split into two factions: the Bolsheviks (meaning 'the men of the majority') and the Mensheviks (meaning 'the men of the minority'). The key figure of the Mensheviks was Julius Tsederbaum, who would come to be known as Martov. Central to Bolshevism was Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov, later better known as Lenin. Martov believed in a grass-roots democracy where everyone had an equal voice. Lenin insisted on the necessity of a small intellectual elite controlling the revolution.

As it turned out, revolution first broke out organically in 1905 without either of them being directly responsible. On 9 January, a union of factory workers demonstrated outside the Winter Palace in Saint Petersburg and were fired on by the military, resulting in more than 100 deaths. A general strike followed; several officials were assassinated, including Tsar Nicholas II's uncle Grand Duke Sergei, the governor-general of Moscow; peasant revolts broke out in various provinces; and the crew of the Battleship Potemkin mutinied. Tsar Nicholas was persuaded into the concession of forming a national parliament. This was divided into two houses, the Council of State (the upper house) and the Duma (the lower house), which would give the proletariat a represented, elected voice. But Nicholas stopped short of actually giving the Duma any power: its role, controversially, was to be purely consultative.

Some reforms were achieved. Health and education systems were put in place and laws were changed so that the peasantry could become landowners if they so chose – half of them did so by 1915. In-fighting between the Bolsheviks and Mensheviks continued during this time, with the former positing the idea that they should swap their underground status for a more public relationship with the now-legal trade unions, and the latter, viewing the bourgeois class as having been weakened by recent events, still pushing for a full proletarian overhaul of society.

Then, in 1914, came war, where inflation ran rampant in Russia, crippling taxes were imposed, and the peasantry were reduced to barely surviving at a level of subsistence farming. The Mensheviks largely supported Russia defending itself against Germany. The more radical Bolsheviks, fronted by the vocal Lenin, advocated flipping the situation into a civil war of the Russian proletariat against its own government, which, if successful, would evolve into a revolutionary war across Europe.

Again, the revolution of 1917 would initially see the various political factions scrambling to take ownership rather than leading from the front. General unrest suddenly led to major upheaval. On 23 February, thousands of women factory workers took to the streets of Saint Petersburg, nominally to mark Women's Day, until the tone shifted into chants demanding bread and mass singing of the French revolutionary anthem *La Marseillaise*. Three days later, rioting in Znamensky Square was met with gunfire from the Znamensky regiment, which caused several other regiments to find their soldiers mutinying in protest. The next day, Saint Petersburg fell to the insurgents, with the authorities retreating to the Winter Palace and the Duma in chaos.

Lenin speaking at the Tauride Palace in 1917

> "ELECTIONS WERE PROMISED AND THEN POSTPONED, BUT BEFORE THEY COULD HAPPEN, THE BOLSHEVIKS SEIZED POWER"

The Provisional Government in Petrograd, 1917

KEY FIGURES

BOLSHEVIKS

Vladimir Lenin

Leader of the Bolsheviks

The revolutionary thinker and politician steered Russia to communist revolution and was its premier from 1917 until his death from a stroke in 1924, aged 53. His body lay in state for four days and was viewed by almost a million mourners.

Leon Trotsky

Chairman of the Revolutionary Committee

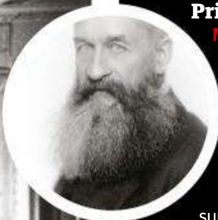
Initially a Menshevik, Trotsky joined the Bolsheviks for the 1917 revolution and was instrumental in its success. He was later expelled from the Communist Party and exiled for his opposition to Stalin. He was assassinated in 1940.

Joseph Stalin

Member of the Central Committee

A minor player in the 1917 revolution, Stalin rose through Bolshevik ranks until he took leadership following Lenin's death. His rule turned Russia into an industrial power, but he was also responsible for the deaths of millions in the Gulags.

PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT



Prince Georgy Lvov

Minister President/Minister of the Interior

The first post-imperial prime minister of Russia, Lvov was the first head of the Provisional Government following Nicholas II's abdication. A veteran of the Duma, he failed to garner much support and resigned after four months.

Alexander Kerensky

Minister of Justice/Minister of War and Navy/ Minister President

The Trudovik Kerensky took over the Provisional Government in July 1917. Unpopular with the military, he was deposed by the revolution. He fled and remained in exile until his death in 1970.

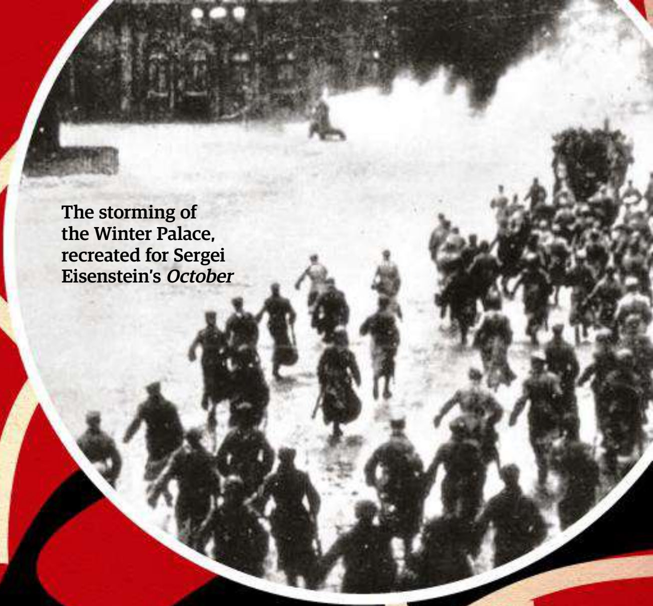
Viktor Chernov

Minister of Agriculture

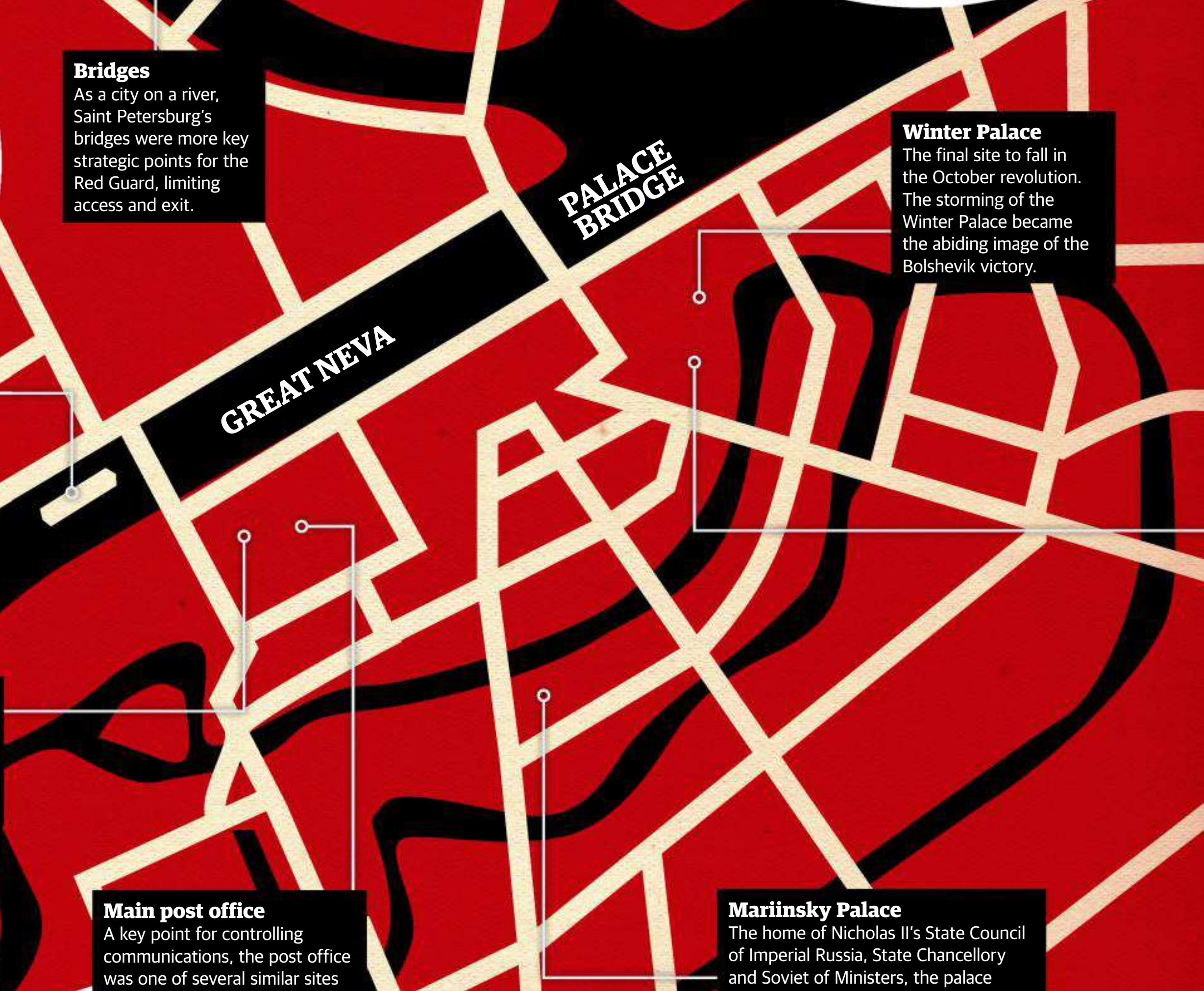
One of the founding members of the Russian Socialist-Revolutionaries, Chernov was a formidable political analyst – some called him the "brain" of the party. Following the Bolsheviks' seizure of power he, like Kerensky, fled to Europe.

THE OCTOBER UPRISING

On 24 October 1917, Lenin's Red Guard stormed the streets of Petrograd, taking over several strategic points



The storming of the Winter Palace, recreated for Sergei Eisenstein's *October*



Bridges
As a city on a river, Saint Petersburg's bridges were more key strategic points for the Red Guard, limiting access and exit.

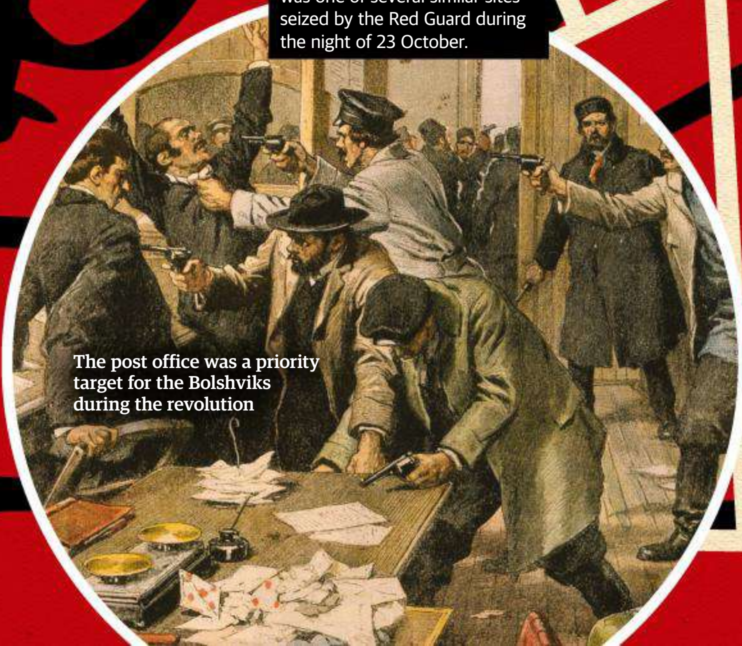
Winter Palace
The final site to fall in the October revolution. The storming of the Winter Palace became the abiding image of the Bolshevik victory.

Aurora
Anchored on Saint Petersburg's Bolshaya Neva River, the cruiser Aurora was the ship from which the revolutionary troops fired blank shots at the Winter Palace, terrorising the people inside.

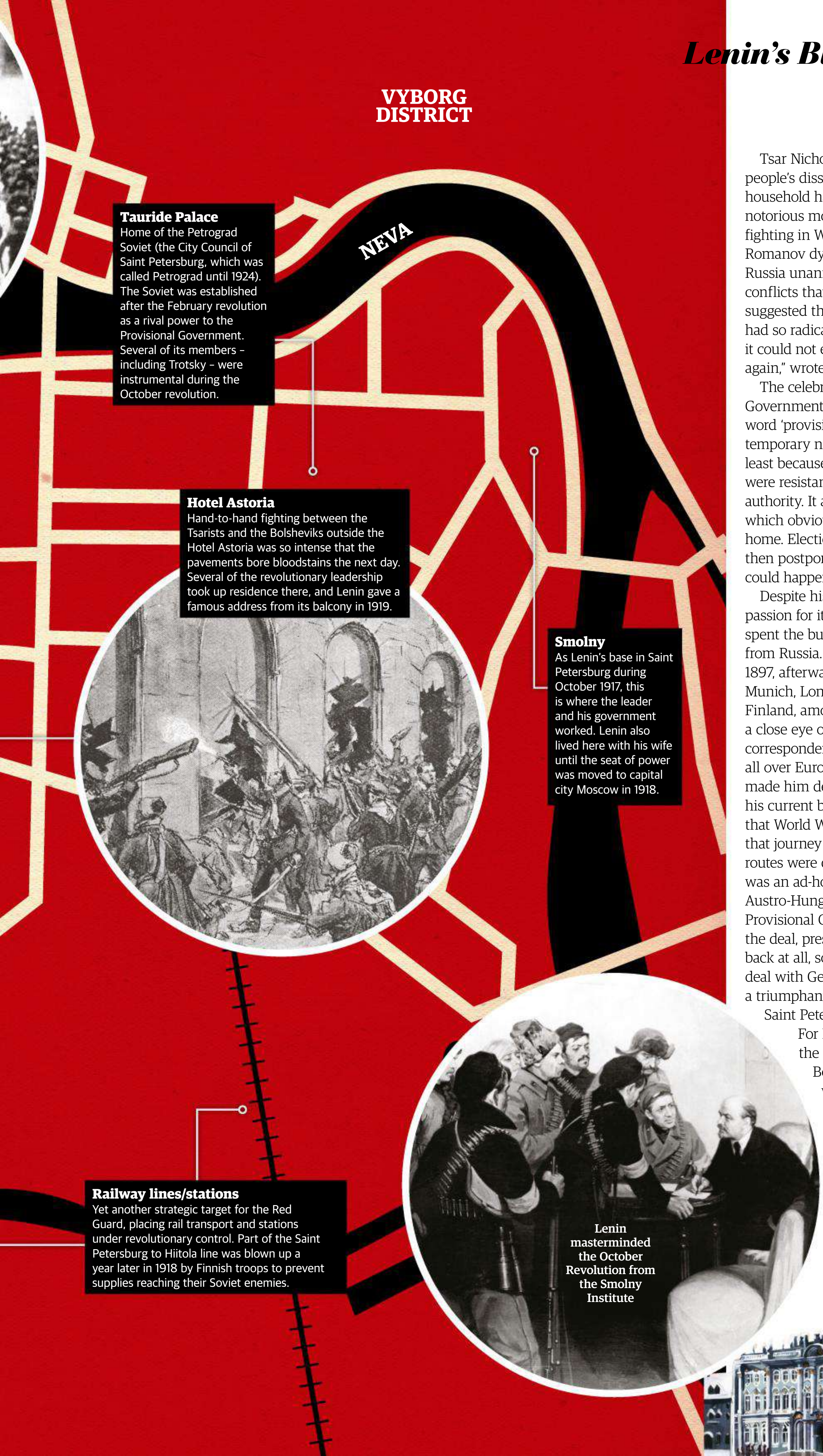
Central Telegraph
Like the post office, control of the Telegraph was of significant use to the Bolsheviks and the Red Guard, cutting off the opposition from any means of summoning help or reinforcement.

Main post office
A key point for controlling communications, the post office was one of several similar sites seized by the Red Guard during the night of 23 October.

Mariinsky Palace
The home of Nicholas II's State Council of Imperial Russia, State Chancellory and Soviet of Ministers, the palace was given over to the Provisional Government in March 1917, and then to various Soviet ministries after October.



The post office was a priority target for the Bolshviks during the revolution



Tauride Palace
Home of the Petrograd Soviet (the City Council of Saint Petersburg, which was called Petrograd until 1924). The Soviet was established after the February revolution as a rival power to the Provisional Government. Several of its members – including Trotsky – were instrumental during the October revolution.

Hotel Astoria
Hand-to-hand fighting between the Tsarists and the Bolsheviks outside the Hotel Astoria was so intense that the pavements bore bloodstains the next day. Several of the revolutionary leadership took up residence there, and Lenin gave a famous address from its balcony in 1919.

Smolny
As Lenin's base in Saint Petersburg during October 1917, this is where the leader and his government worked. Lenin also lived here with his wife until the seat of power was moved to capital city Moscow in 1918.

Railway lines/stations
Yet another strategic target for the Red Guard, placing rail transport and stations under revolutionary control. Part of the Saint Petersburg to Hiitola line was blown up a year later in 1918 by Finnish troops to prevent supplies reaching their Soviet enemies.

Lenin masterminded the October Revolution from the Smolny Institute

Tsar Nicholas, long the figurehead for the people's dissatisfaction – it didn't help that his household had come under the malign influence of notorious monk Rasputin while Nicholas had been fighting in World War I – abdicated, ending the Romanov dynasty with extraordinary suddenness. Russia unanimously rejoiced, and in the civil conflicts that followed, no party or faction even suggested the monarchy's revival. "The country had so radically vomited up the monarchy that it could not ever crawl down the people's throat again," wrote the Social Democrat Leon Trotsky.

The celebrations were short lived. A Provisional Government was formed, but while the very word 'provisional' was intended to make clear its temporary nature, it struggled to keep order: not least because, having not been elected, the people were resistant to the idea that it wielded any authority. It also continued to fight in World War I, which obviously remained an unpopular policy at home. Elections were promised for September and then postponed until November, but before they could happen, the Bolsheviks seized power.

Despite his devotion to his homeland and his passion for its political struggles, Lenin had actually spent the bulk of the previous two decades away from Russia. Exiled to Siberia for three years in 1897, afterwards he spent itinerant periods in Munich, London, Paris, Sweden, Switzerland and Finland, among other places, all the time keeping a close eye on events at home and keeping up correspondence with his revolutionary comrades all over Europe. The unrest in February 1917 made him desperate to return to Russia from his current base in Switzerland, but the fact that World War I was raging around him made that journey problematic. Various adventurous routes were discussed, but the eventual solution was an ad-hoc exchange of Russian exiles for Austro-Hungarian prisoners of war. The Russian Provisional Government dragged their heels over the deal, presumably not sure they wanted Lenin back at all, so the impatient communists did the deal with Germany themselves. Lenin arrived to a triumphant reception at the Finland Station in Saint Petersburg in April 1917.

For Lenin, the timing was urgent. Over the next six months he deluged his Bolshevik Central Committee colleagues with arguments in favour of radical immediate action, and on 10 October, the decision to seize power was made, with an alliance of Lenin and former Menshevik Trotsky, now the chairman of the predominantly Bolshevik Petrograd Soviet (meaning 'council'), at its vanguard.

The night of 23 October gave the revolutionaries the excuse they needed for their assault on power,

SOVIET DECREES

In the seven years following the revolution in 1917, the new government issued dozens of legislative acts. They were known as decrees

DECREE ON PEACE

The document proposing the immediate withdrawal of Russia from World War I: a key Bolshevik policy since before the revolution.

DECREE ON LAND

Again, a central Bolshevik policy made law: private property was to be abolished and landed estates redistributed among the peasantry.

DECREE SOCIALIST HOMELAND IS IN DANGER!

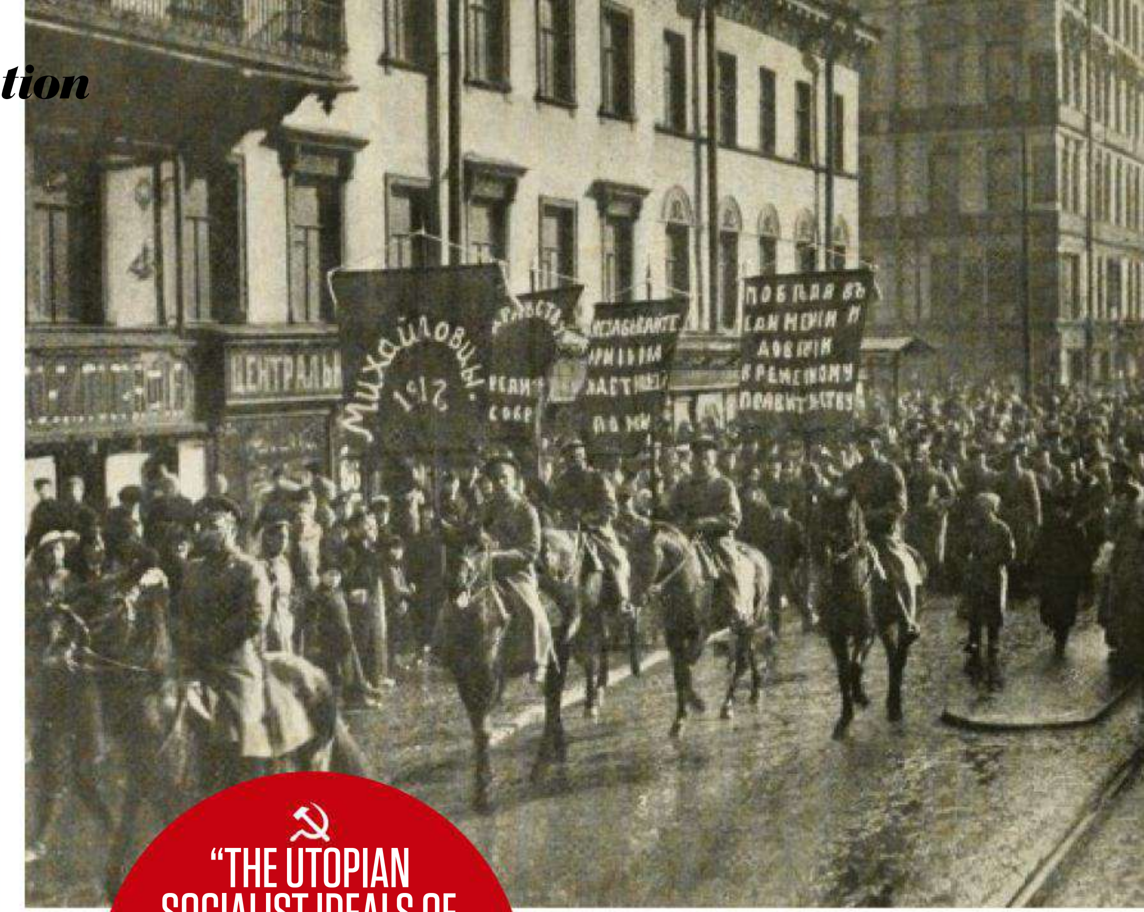
A call for peasant forces to mobilise in Russia's defence in the face of German advances. "Protect each position to the last drop of blood!" was the cry.

DECREE ON THE RED TERROR

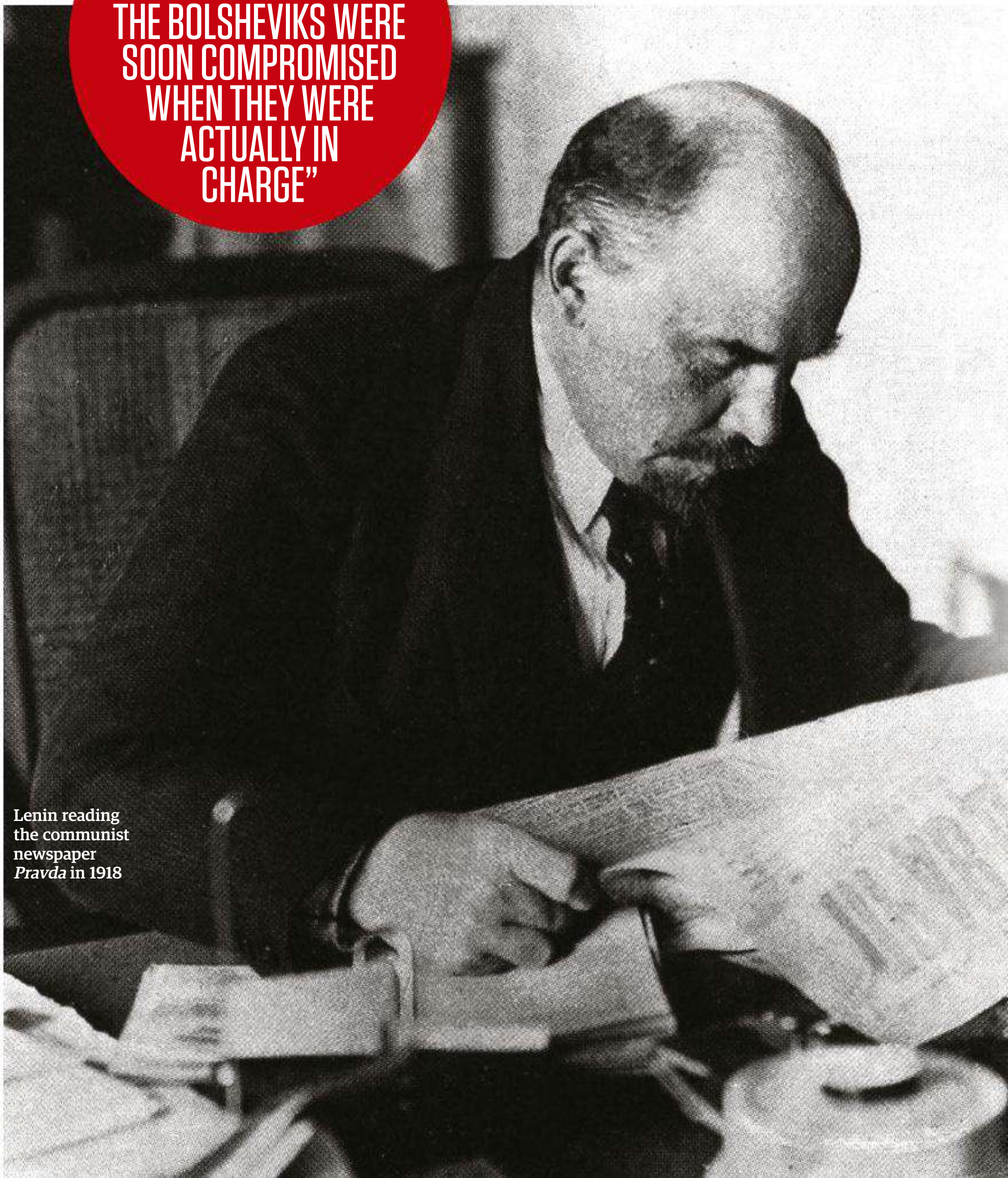
An appeal for workers to crush any signs of counter-revolution against the Bolsheviks. "Anyone who dares to spread the slightest rumour against the Soviet regime will be arrested immediately…"

DECREE ON THE INTRODUCTION OF TIME MEASUREMENT ACCORDING TO INTERNATIONAL TIME ZONE SYSTEM

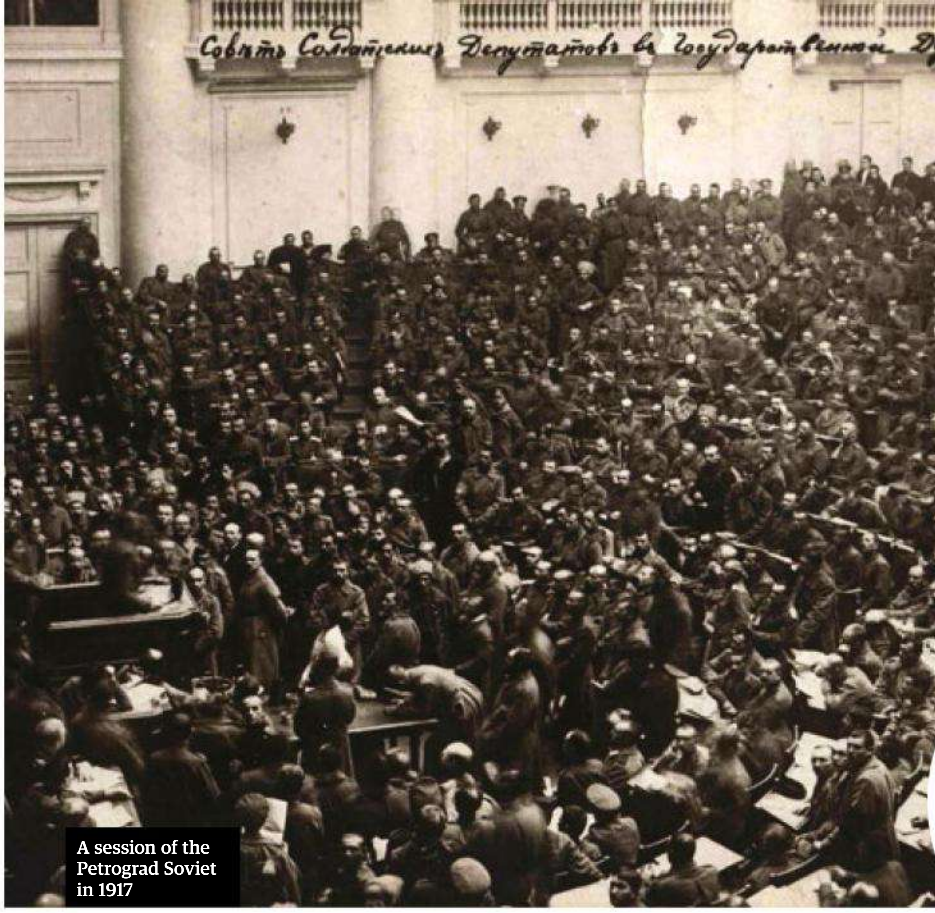
Russia changed from the 'Old Style' Gregorian Calendar to the 'New Style' Julian system of much of the rest of the world in 1919. There's a few days' difference, meaning the October Revolution actually took place in November.



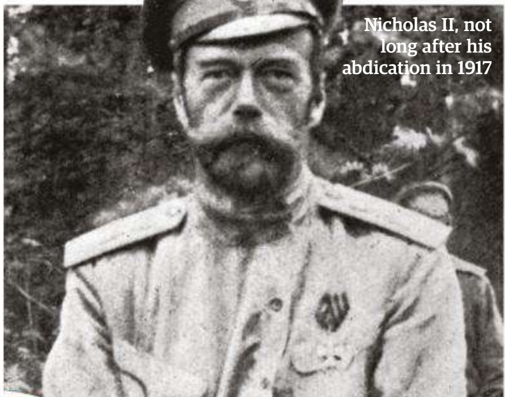
> "THE UTOPIAN SOCIALIST IDEALS OF THE BOLSHEVIKS WERE SOON COMPROMISED WHEN THEY WERE ACTUALLY IN CHARGE"



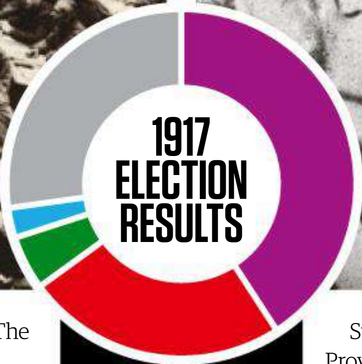
Lenin reading the communist newspaper *Pravda* in 1918


Совѣтъ Солдатскихъ Депутатовъ въ Государственной Думѣ

A session of the Petrograd Soviet in 1917



Nicholas II, not long after his abdication in 1917



Socialist-Revolutionary Party
Percentage: 41
Number of seats: 380

Bolsheviks
Percentage: 24
Number of seats: 168

Constitutional Democratic Party
Percentage: 5
Number of seats: 17

Mensheviks
Percentage: 3
Seats: 18

Others
Percentage: 27
Number of seats: 120

when the Provisional Government, led by the moderate-socialist Alexander Kerensky, ordered the shutting down of the Bolshevik printing presses as a prelude to an attack on the Petrograd Military Revolutionary Committee. In retaliation, the Bolsheviks' armed bands of proletariat workers, known as the Red Guard, stormed strategic points such as bridges, railway stations, telephone exchanges, post offices, the national bank and the Tauride Palace. Kerensky fled, having been unable to muster counter-troops in time. By the morning, the only site that hadn't fallen to the revolutionaries was the Winter Palace, the headquarters of the Provisional Government.

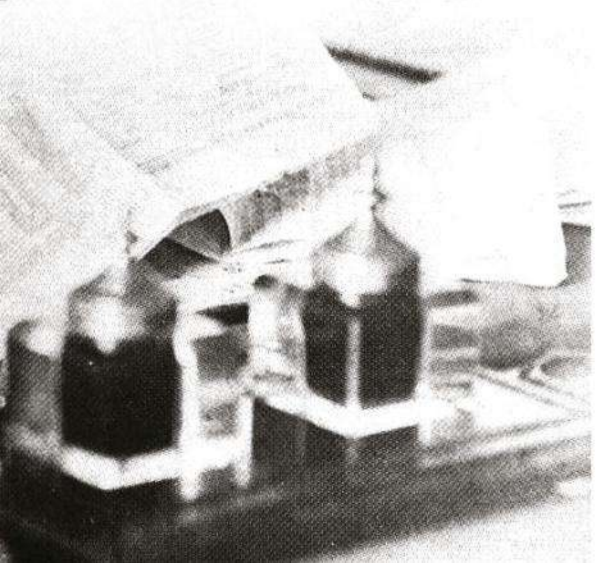
The 'Storming of the Winter Palace' has gone down as a famously dramatic moment in history, but it was actually a much more scrappy affair than portrayals like Sergei Eisenstein's classic film *October* have suggested. The revolutionary military had planned to begin the assault using heavy artillery from the nearby Peter and Paul Fortress, but it turned out that the weapons there were rusty from disuse and wouldn't function. Soldiers brought up replacement cannons from elsewhere in the fortress, but then realised they didn't have the right shells to fire from them. The signal to attack, it had been agreed, would come from a red lantern raised on a flagpole, but during the event, a red lantern couldn't be found, and the soldier sent to look for one got lost in the dark and fell into a bog. The lamp he eventually brought back couldn't be attached to the pole and wasn't red anyway. Nobody that eventually participated in the attack even saw it. This Pythonesque chaos dragged the Winter Palace's downfall out to a tortuous 15 hours, when a more organised force could probably have achieved it in far less time.

Luckily for the Bolshevik forces, the defence from within the Winter Palace was practically non-existent. The ministers inside were inexperienced in military matters, and the small number of troops defending them were becoming increasingly nervous the longer they waited for the Bolsheviks to breach the doors. Ammunition and food supplies for even a single evening were desperately low, and when the Bolsheviks began firing blank shots at the palace from the cruiser Aurora anchored on the Bolshaya Neva River, the soldiers mostly panicked and fled. Lenin appeared in public for the first time in months to proclaim that the Provisional Government had been overthrown, and that the time had finally come to "set about building a proletarian socialist state." The Bolshevik position was strengthened even further when the Mensheviks and the Social Revolutionaries walked out of the resultant talks, leaving Lenin and his comrades basically unopposed. "You are miserable bankrupts. You have played out your role," Trotsky said to those departing. "Go where you belong, into the dustbin of history."

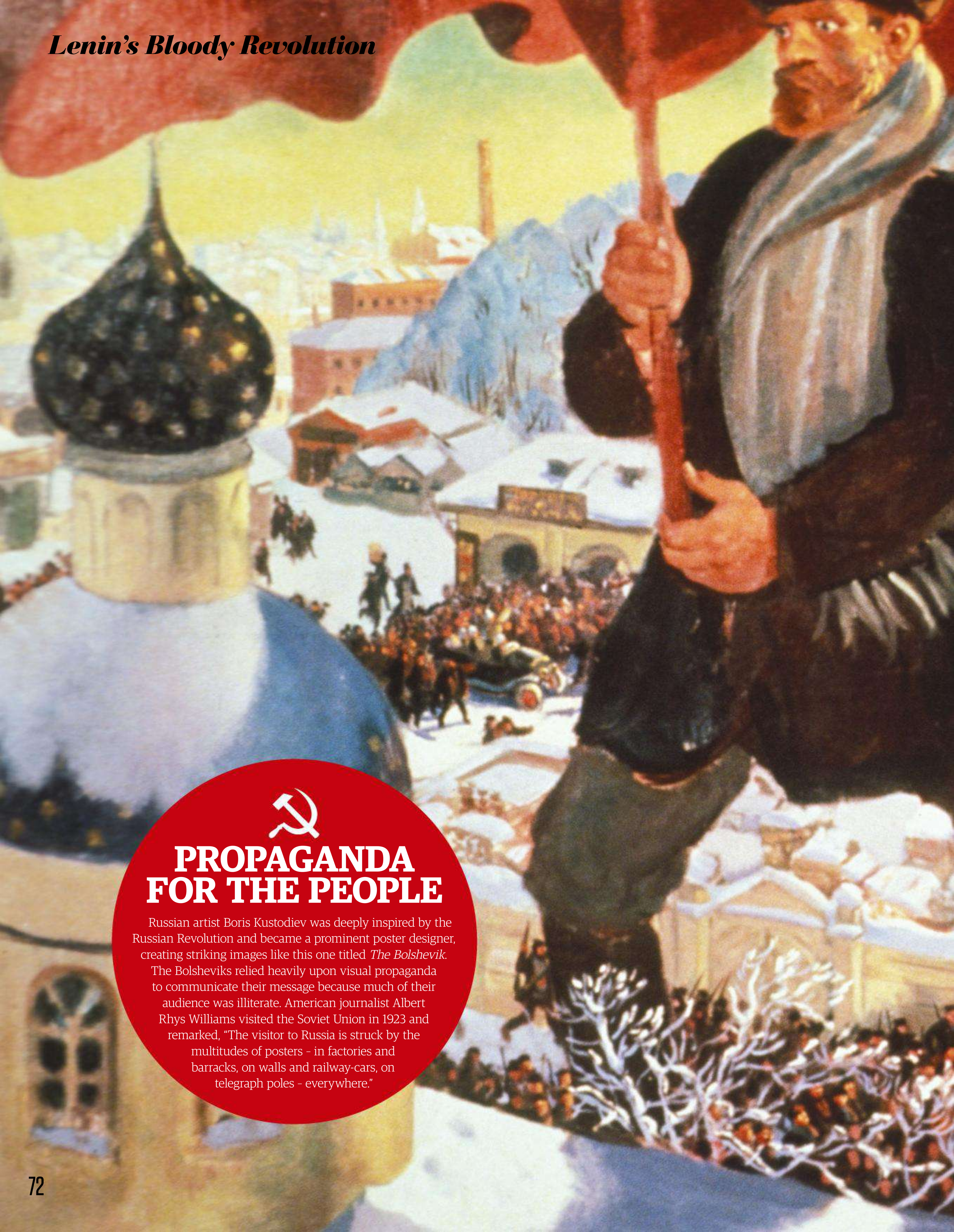
Such had been the state of the Provisional Government that, as one commentator put it, the Bolsheviks did not so much seize power as pick it up from where it had been dropped. The revolution has been called a coup in some circles, but the word 'coup' implies taking power from a strong opponent, where the power that the Provisional Government actually wielded was debatable. Essentially, there had been nobody actually 'running' Russia for the months since the abdication of the Tsar.

Sadly, however, the utopian socialist ideals of the Bolsheviks were soon compromised when they were actually in charge, with Lenin forced into compromises like the crippling Brest-Litovsk peace treaty with Germany, which lost Russia several of its provinces and deprived it of vast swathes of its agricultural and industrial resources. The Bolshevik ideology proved largely unworkable simply due to the practicalities of governance. Lenin ended up replacing one monolithic state with a different one, overruling the 'free' elections of November 1917 (in which the Socialist-Revolutionary Party won a significant majority of the votes) and announcing "the Dictatorship of the Proletariat" so that the Bolsheviks walked away with power anyway. Factional splits and civil war followed, as did the continuing oppression of the proletariat that Bolshevism had sought to liberate, the catastrophic famine of the 1930s and the horrific regime of the former Bolshevik Joseph Stalin.

The flurry of ideas that had led to the revolution had been, and for many is still, inspirational. The tragedy remains that the revolutionaries failed to live up to their own ideology.

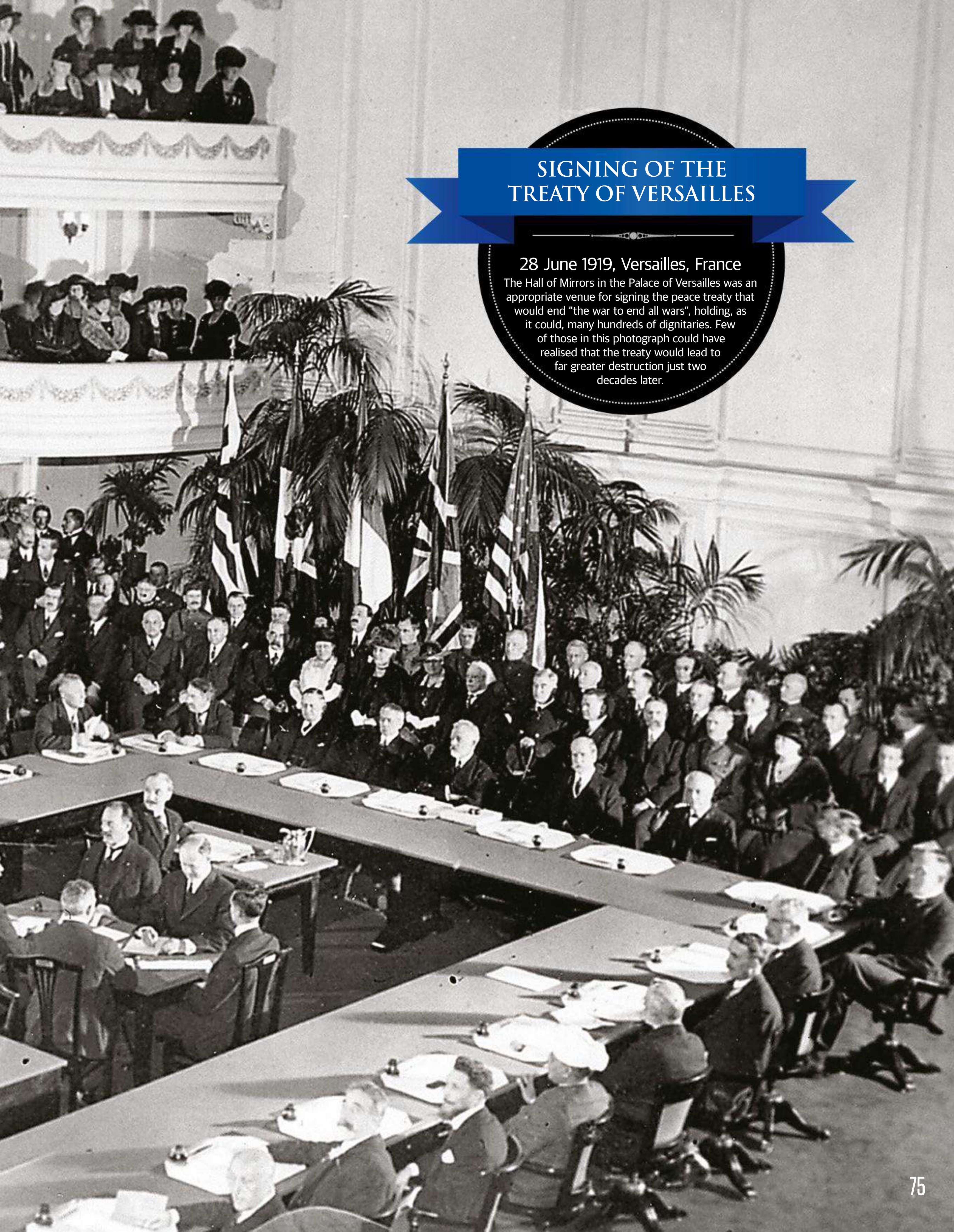


© Joe Cummings; Alamy; Rex Features



PROPAGANDA FOR THE PEOPLE

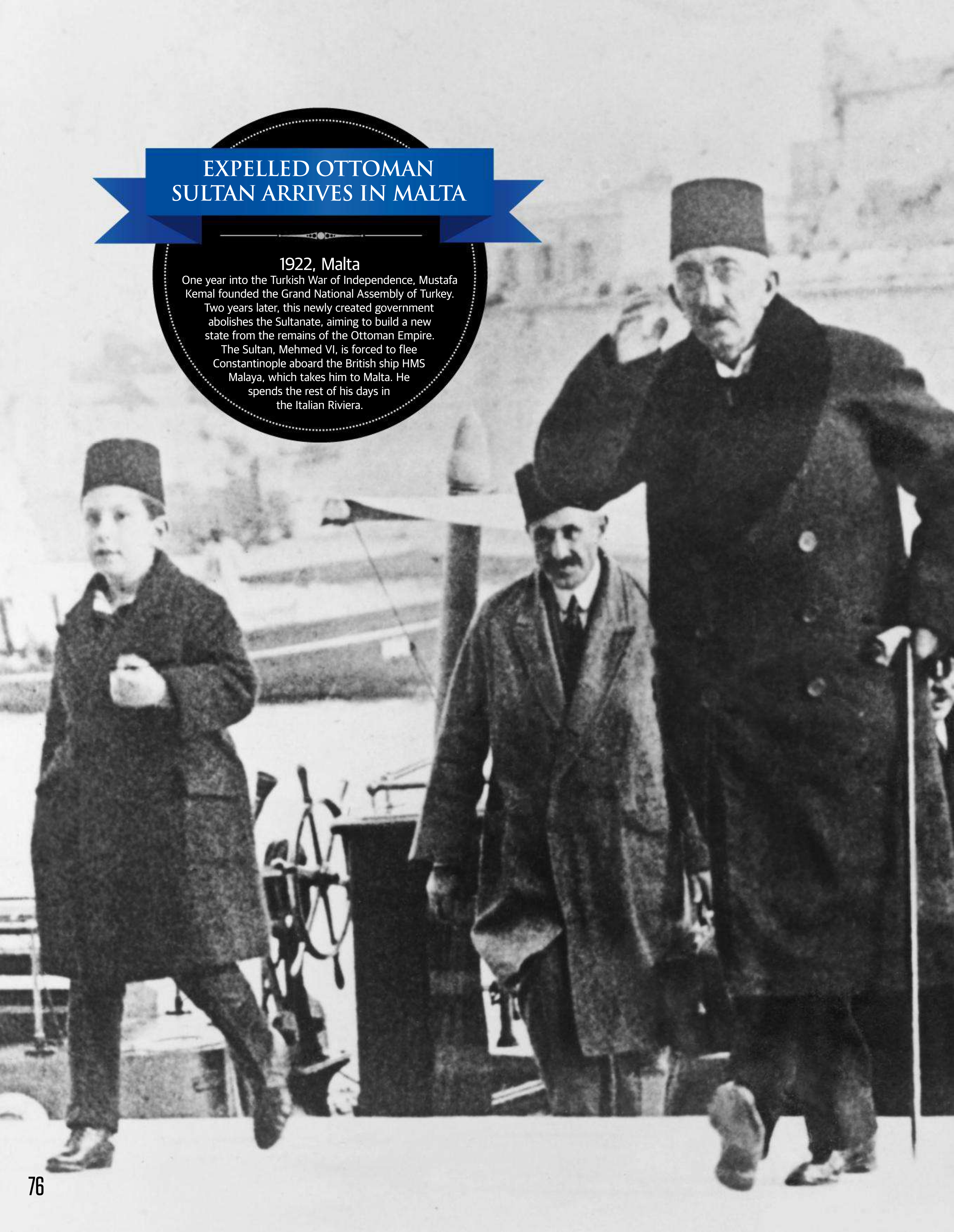
Russian artist Boris Kustodiev was deeply inspired by the Russian Revolution and became a prominent poster designer, creating striking images like this one titled *The Bolshevik*. The Bolsheviks relied heavily upon visual propaganda to communicate their message because much of their audience was illiterate. American journalist Albert Rhys Williams visited the Soviet Union in 1923 and remarked, "The visitor to Russia is struck by the multitudes of posters - in factories and barracks, on walls and railway-cars, on telegraph poles - everywhere."



SIGNING OF THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES

28 June 1919, Versailles, France

The Hall of Mirrors in the Palace of Versailles was an appropriate venue for signing the peace treaty that would end "the war to end all wars", holding, as it could, many hundreds of dignitaries. Few of those in this photograph could have realised that the treaty would lead to far greater destruction just two decades later.



EXPELLED OTTOMAN SULTAN ARRIVES IN MALTA

1922, Malta

One year into the Turkish War of Independence, Mustafa Kemal founded the Grand National Assembly of Turkey. Two years later, this newly created government abolishes the Sultanate, aiming to build a new state from the remains of the Ottoman Empire. The Sultan, Mehmed VI, is forced to flee Constantinople aboard the British ship HMS Malaya, which takes him to Malta. He spends the rest of his days in the Italian Riviera.

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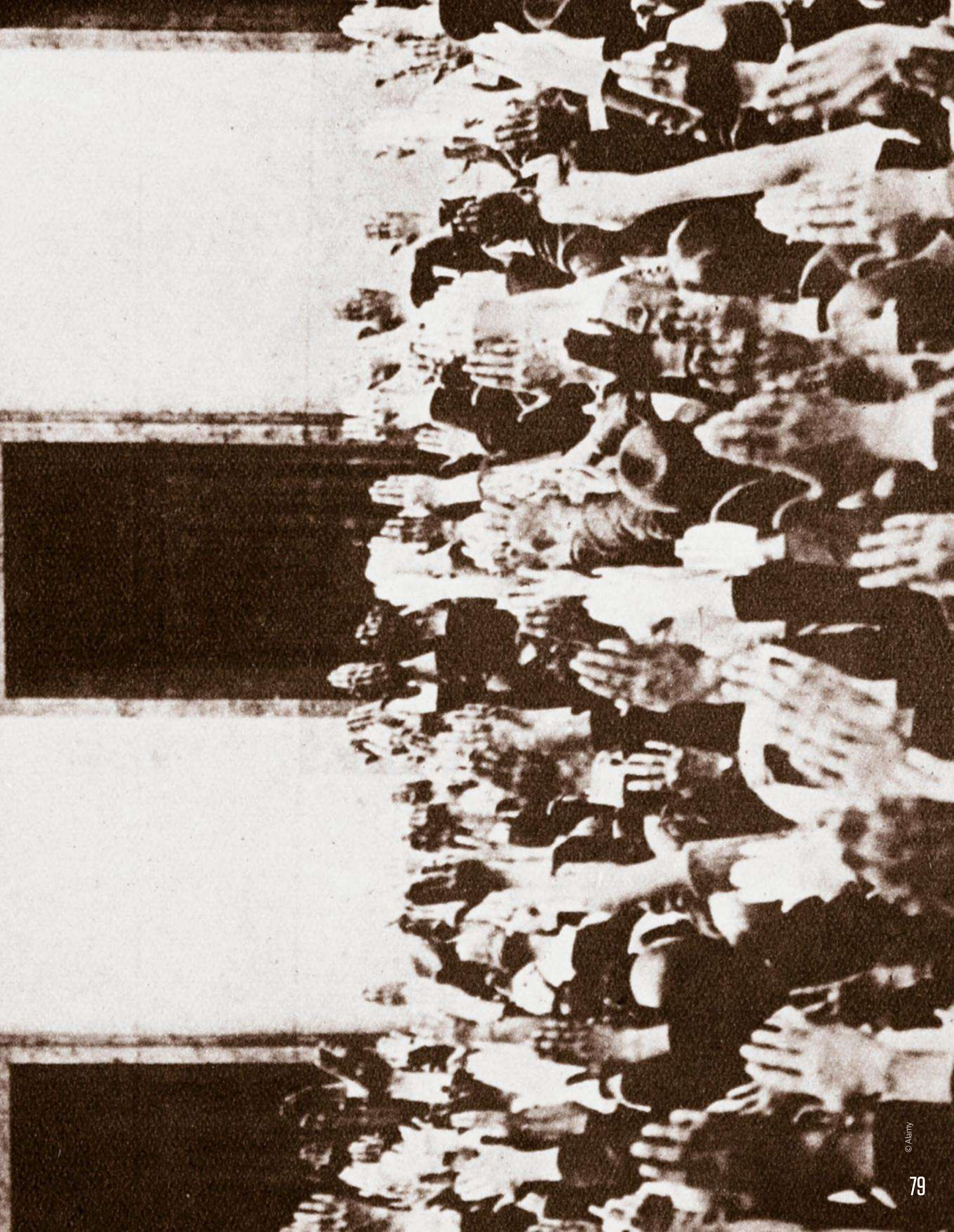
ADOLF HITLER IS APPOINTED CHANCELLOR

30 January 1933, Berlin, Germany

In this iconic image, Adolf Hitler addresses his followers in the same manner as any successful politician. However, the truth of the matter couldn't have been further from public perception. What followed could only have been predicted by those close to him. After his legitimate election, Hitler's constitutional nous and terrifying charisma sees him quickly become supreme ruler of Germany, enabling him to enact his terrible ambitions.



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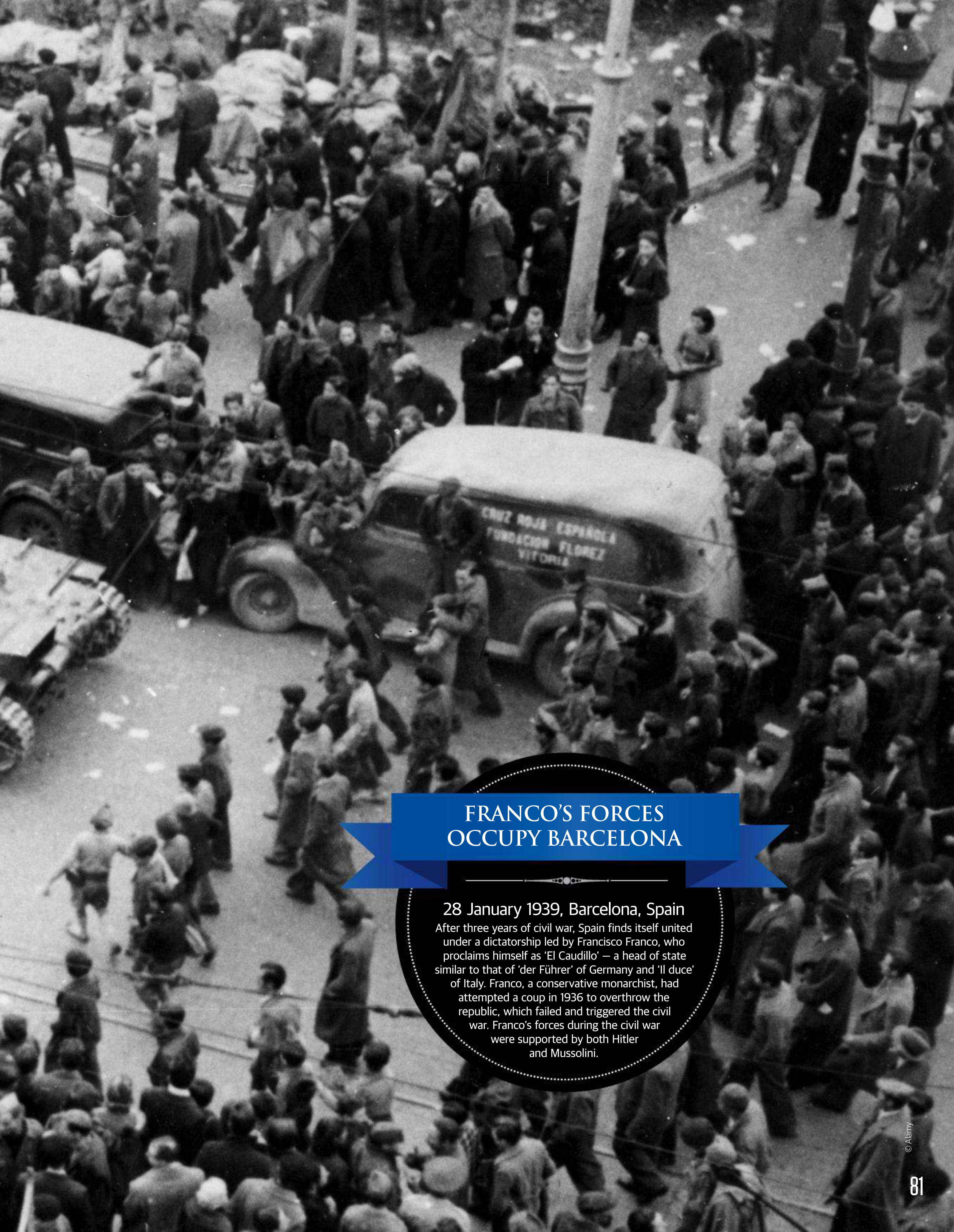

FRANCO'S FORCES OCCUPY BARCELONA

28 January 1939, Barcelona, Spain

After three years of civil war, Spain finds itself united under a dictatorship led by Francisco Franco, who proclaims himself as 'El Caudillo' – a head of state similar to that of 'der Führer' of Germany and 'Il duce' of Italy. Franco, a conservative monarchist, had attempted a coup in 1936 to overthrow the republic, which failed and triggered the civil war. Franco's forces during the civil war were supported by both Hitler and Mussolini.

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CHURCHILL DELIVERS HIS ‘ON THE BEACHES’ SPEECH

4 June 1940, London, England

In one of the most powerful moments of the war, Winston Churchill addresses Parliament on 4 June 1940, emboldened by a singular desire: defiance. After watching the German armed forces take large swathes of mainland Europe, necessitating the famous Allied retreat from Dunkirk, Churchill vows never to surrender. An orator for the ages, on this day Winston Churchill delivers a statement of political intent the likes of which has rarely been seen since.

© Getty

ROOSEVELT CAMPAIGNS FOR A THIRD TERM

4 November 1940, New York, USA

In an unprecedented move, President Franklin D Roosevelt, who had already served two terms – traditionally considered the maximum – announces that he will be running for a third term in office. Public reception is widely mixed. His opposition, Wendell Willkie of the Republicans, claims that Roosevelt is a dictator and tyrant who refuses to let go of power, comparing him to Hitler and Mussolini. Ultimately, Roosevelt wins a landslide victory.

BETTER
A 3rd. TERMER
THAN A
3rd. RATER!

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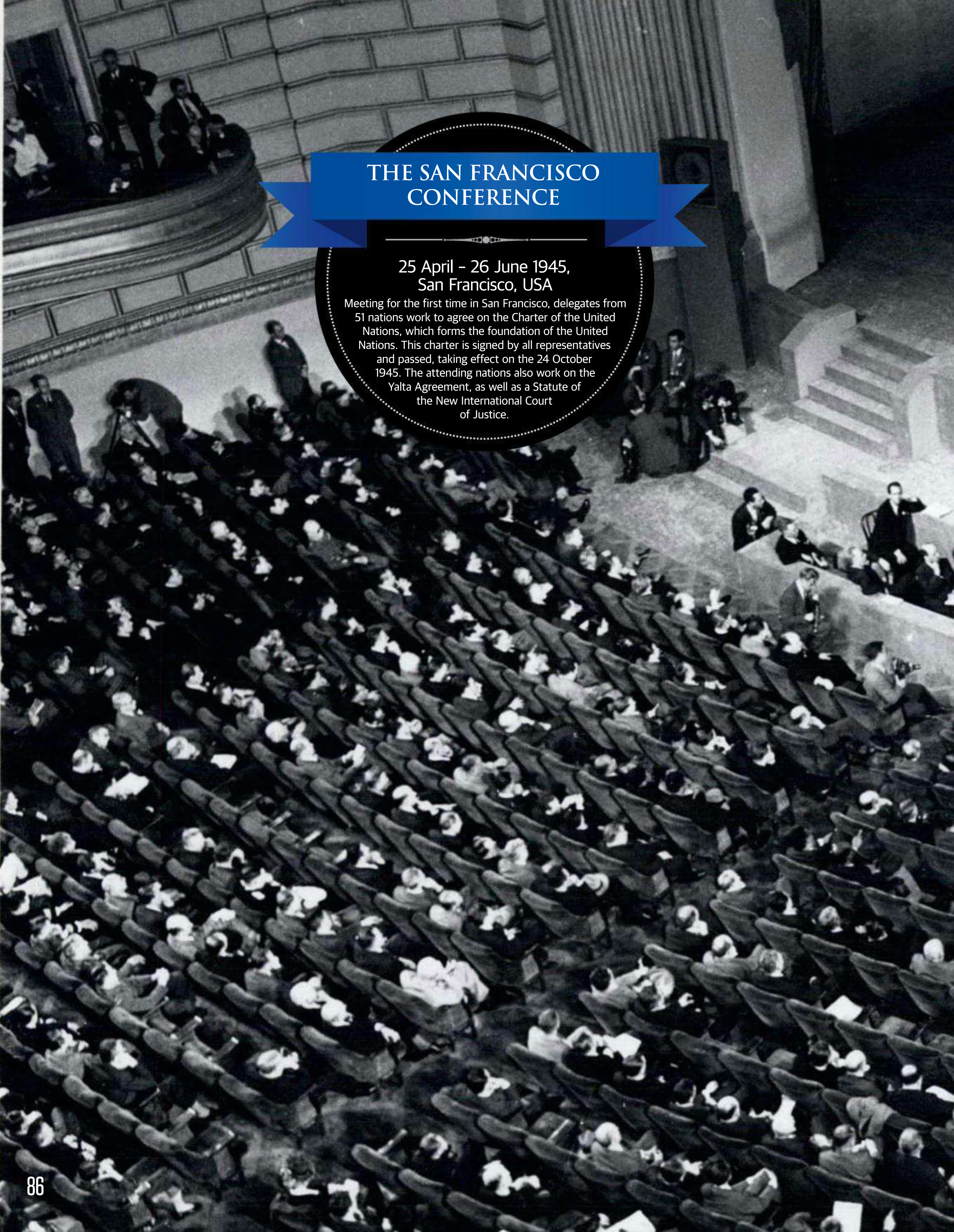

THE SAN FRANCISCO CONFERENCE

25 April – 26 June 1945,
San Francisco, USA

Meeting for the first time in San Francisco, delegates from 51 nations work to agree on the Charter of the United Nations, which forms the foundation of the United Nations. This charter is signed by all representatives and passed, taking effect on the 24 October 1945. The attending nations also work on the Yalta Agreement, as well as a Statute of the New International Court of Justice.

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THE PARTITION OF INDIA SPARKS CHAOS

15 August 1947, India

Prime Minister Clement Attlee had always been a supporter of Indian independence and made the issue a high priority when he came to power. British control of the dominion had been wavering for some time and wasn't helped by the two nation theory. However, while many wanted India to be independent, the reality saw violence, upheaval and mass migration between the two new states, India and Pakistan.

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KIM IL-SUNG COMES TO POWER IN NORTH KOREA

9 September 1948, North Korea

Kim Il-sung is a man surrounded by myth who rose to power after an arduous life as a communist guerrilla fighter in China. After 26 years in exile from Korea, he returns in 1945 just after the Soviets declare war in Japan. The Soviets soon install him as the leader of North Korea after the country's partition. In doing so, the world's only communist monarchy is born.

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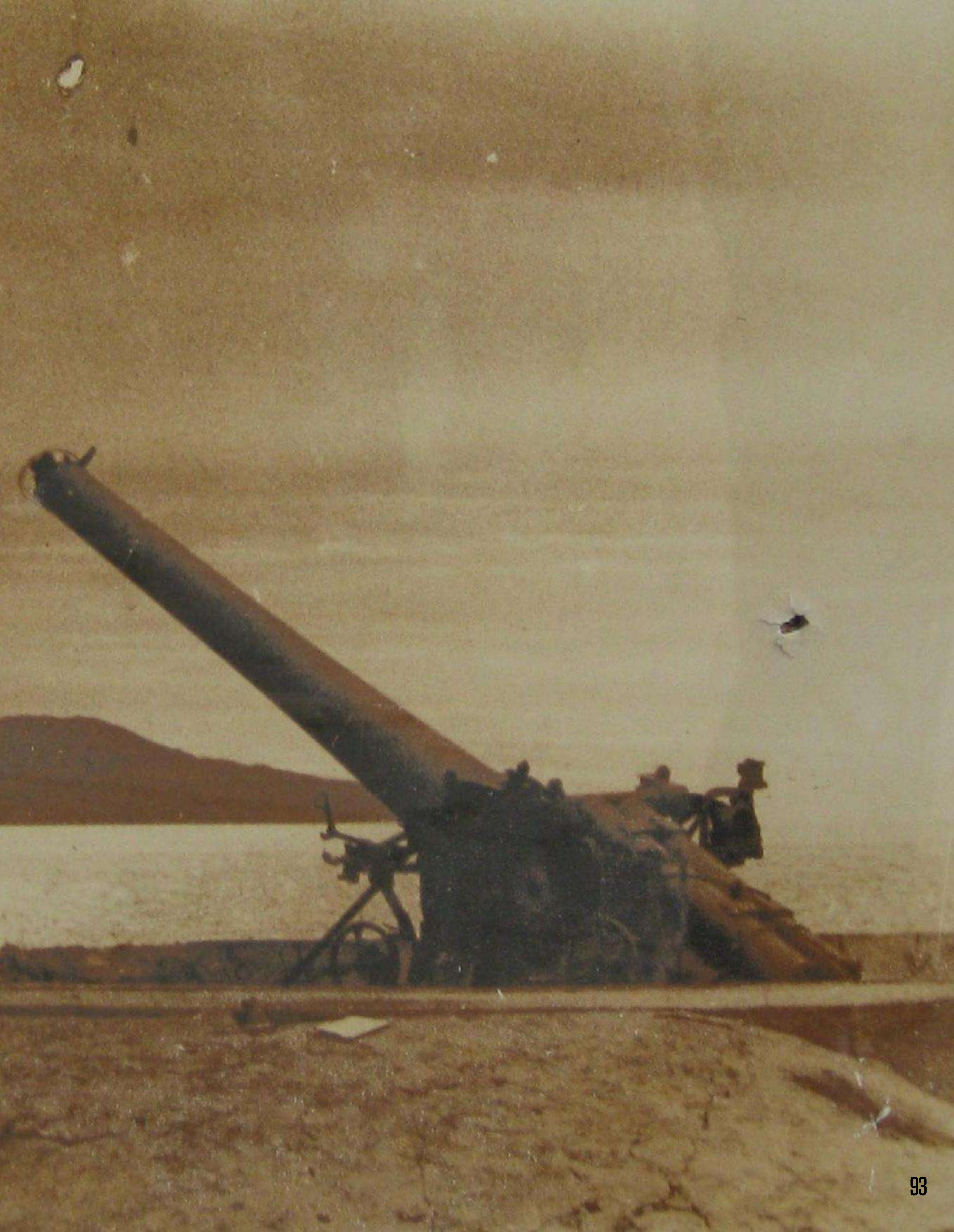
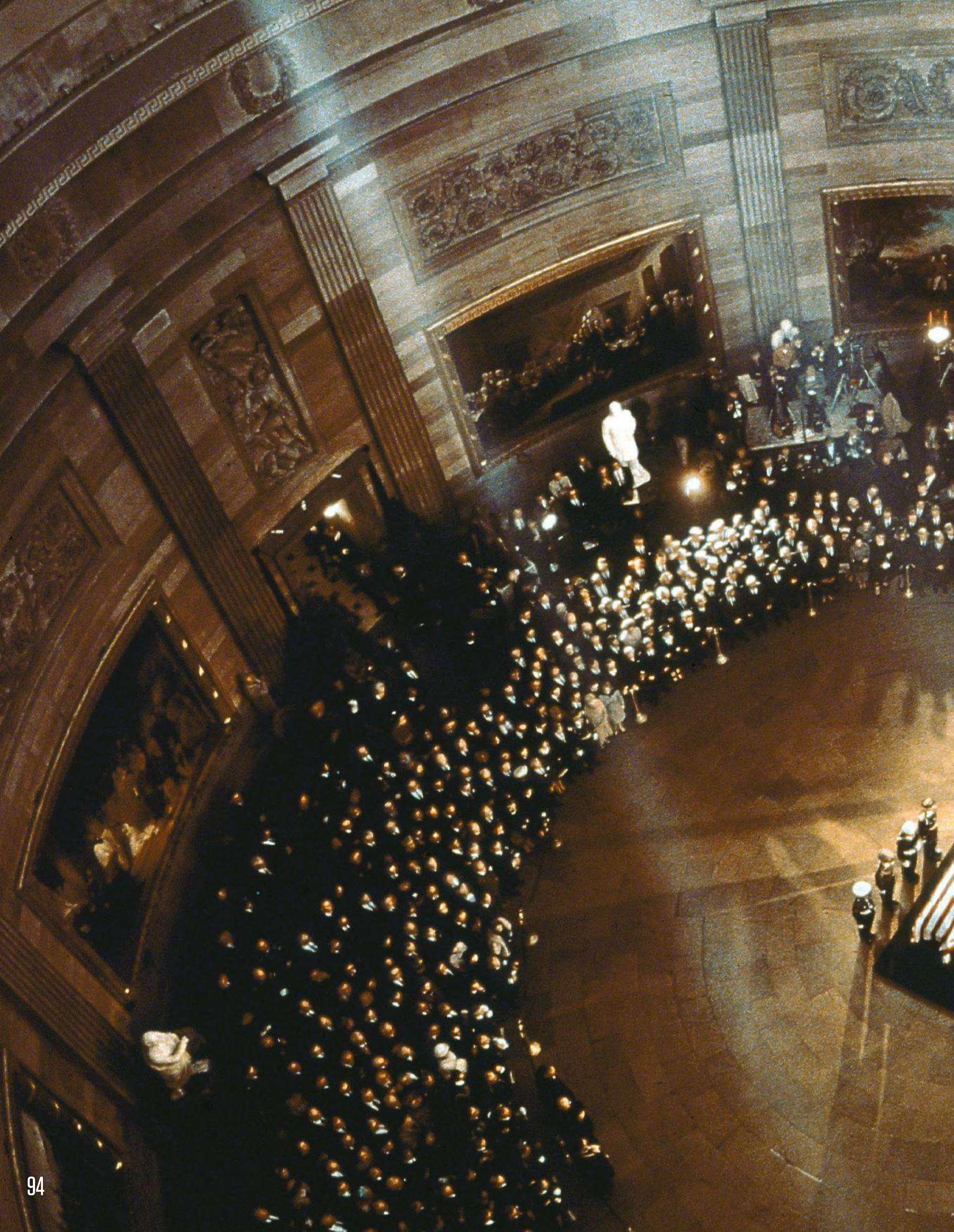
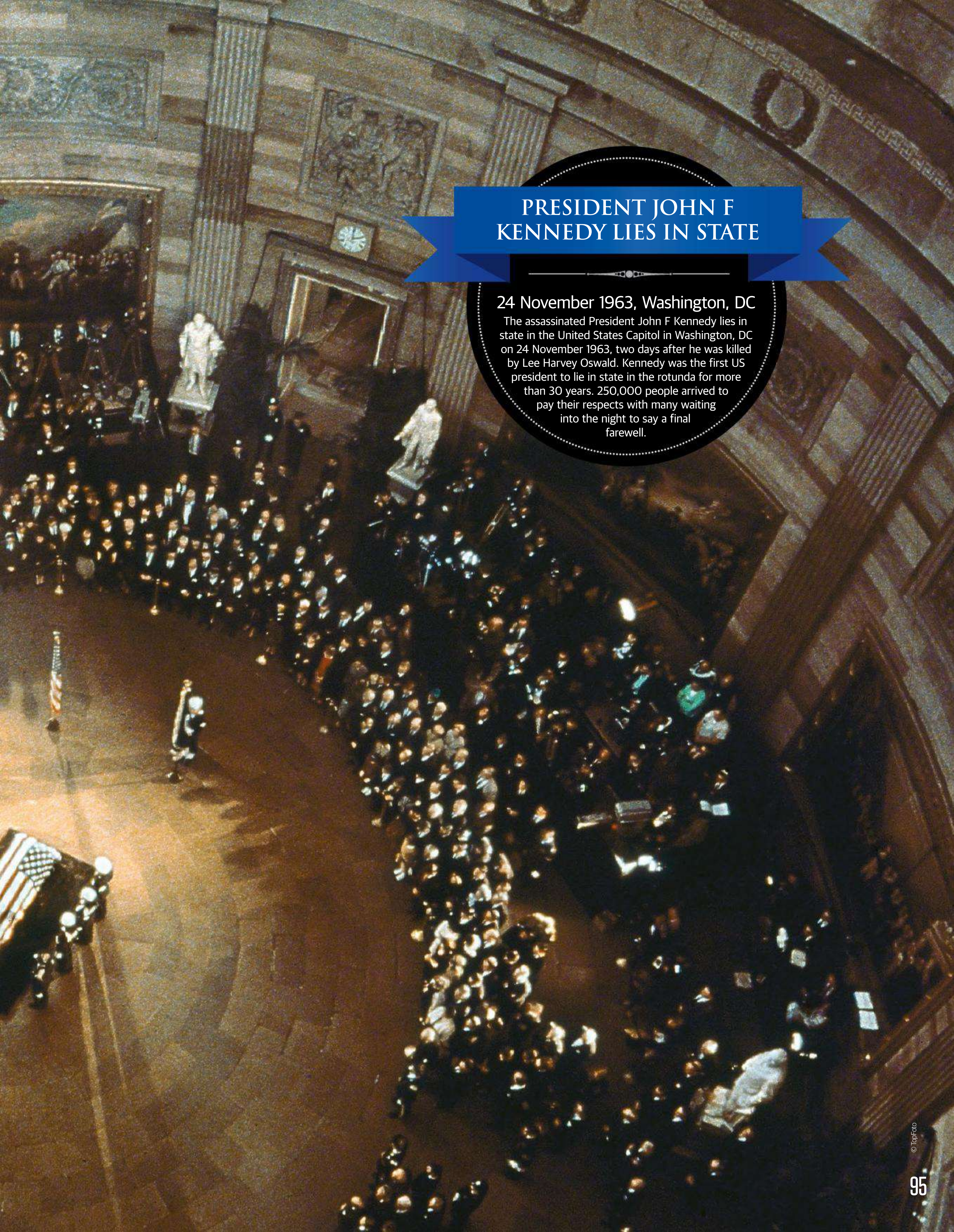
SUEZ CRISIS ENDS IN HUMILIATION

29 October – 7 November 1956, Suez Canal, Egypt

Amid mounting tension between Britain, France and Egypt, the Egyptian president announces that he is nationalising the Suez Canal. Britain and France become concerned – what if Egypt closes it off completely? They plan military action and consider overthrowing Egypt's president. They soon invade but are met with American hostility and evacuate in December. Both see their Middle Eastern influence fade.







PRESIDENT JOHN F KENNEDY LIES IN STATE

24 November 1963, Washington, DC

The assassinated President John F Kennedy lies in state in the United States Capitol in Washington, DC on 24 November 1963, two days after he was killed by Lee Harvey Oswald. Kennedy was the first US president to lie in state in the rotunda for more than 30 years. 250,000 people arrived to pay their respects with many waiting into the night to say a final farewell.

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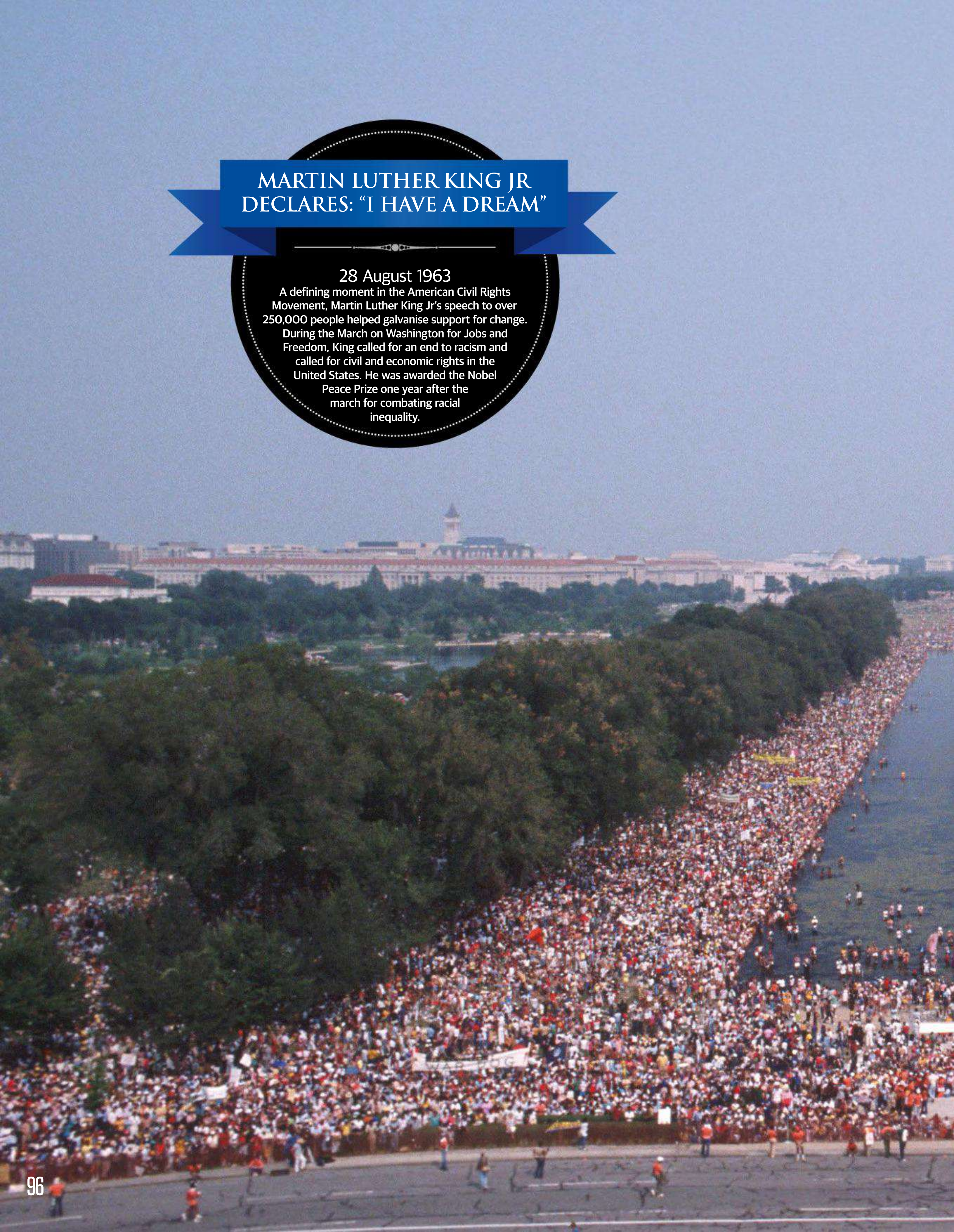
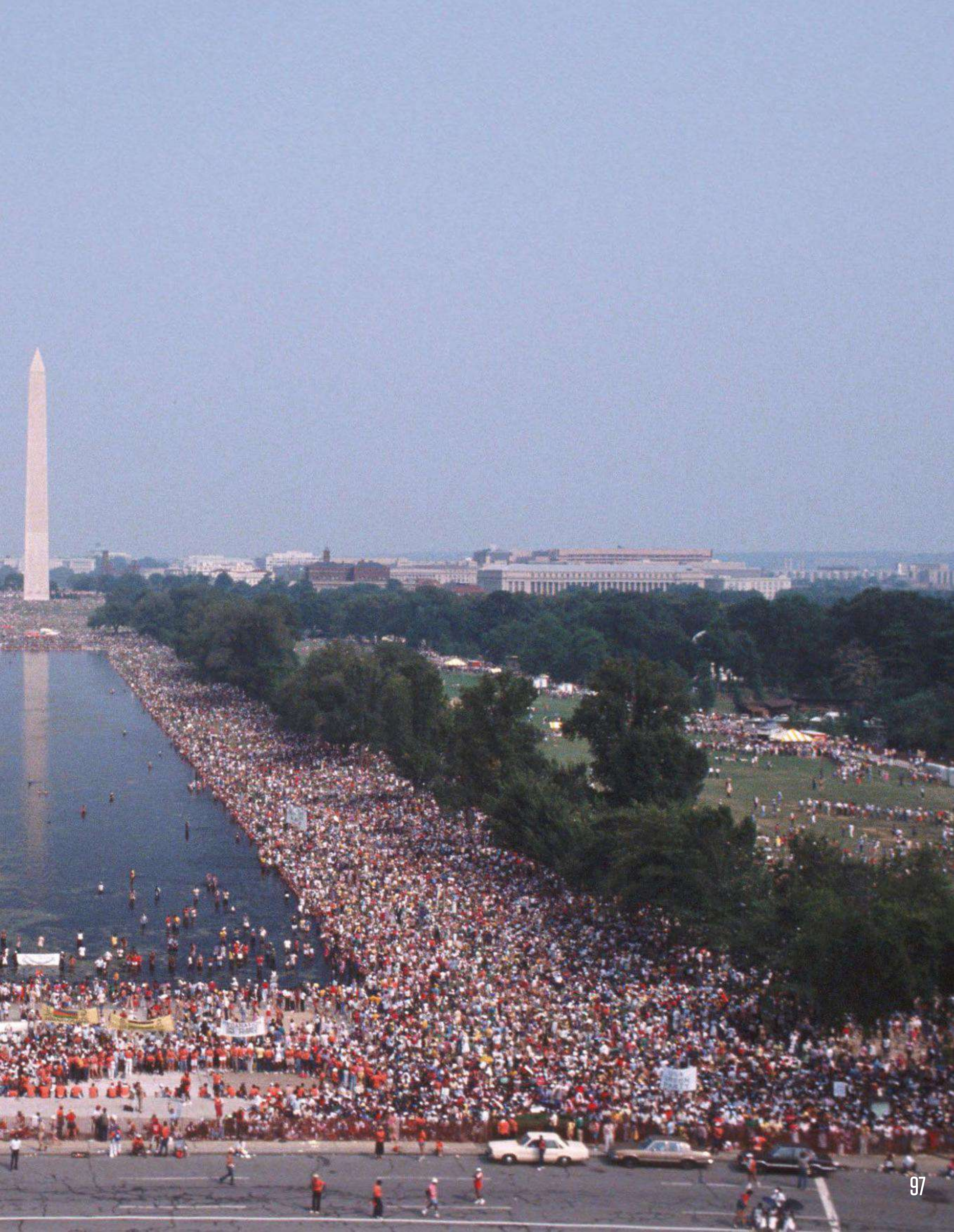
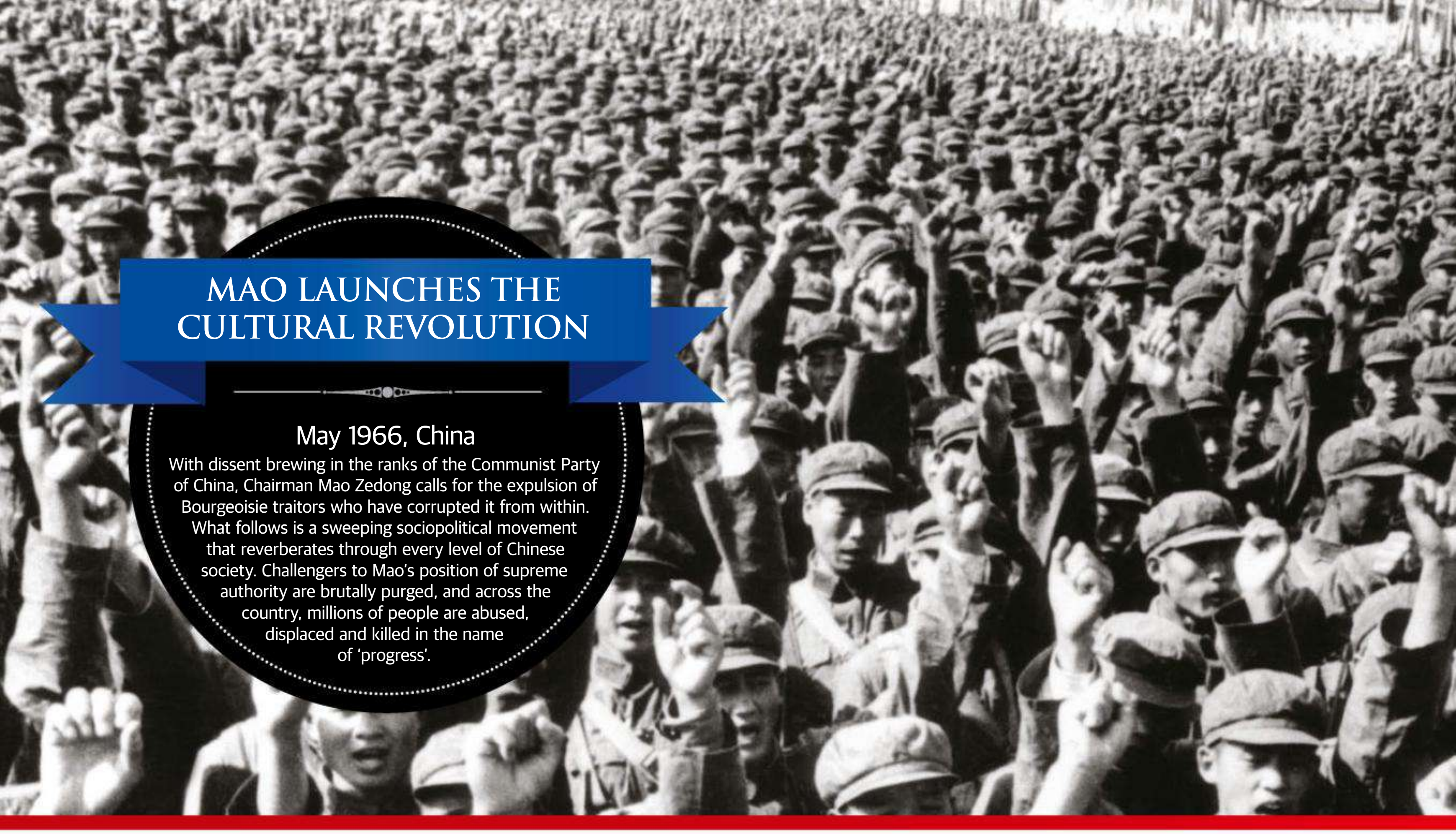
MARTIN LUTHER KING JR DECLARES: "I HAVE A DREAM"

28 August 1963

A defining moment in the American Civil Rights Movement, Martin Luther King Jr's speech to over 250,000 people helped galvanise support for change. During the March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom, King called for an end to racism and called for civil and economic rights in the United States. He was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize one year after the march for combating racial inequality.







MAO LAUNCHES THE CULTURAL REVOLUTION

May 1966, China

With dissent brewing in the ranks of the Communist Party of China, Chairman Mao Zedong calls for the expulsion of Bourgeoisie traitors who have corrupted it from within. What follows is a sweeping sociopolitical movement that reverberates through every level of Chinese society. Challengers to Mao's position of supreme authority are brutally purged, and across the country, millions of people are abused, displaced and killed in the name of 'progress'.

MAO'S CULTURAL REVOLUTION

In the 1960s, China's youth rebelled in their millions. Believing they were saving the world, they were actually unwitting pawns in a devious politician's game

In April 1968, people in the British colony of Hong Kong noticed hundreds of mysterious objects drifting into Victoria Harbour. At first it was believed they were sacks that seemed to be flowing into the waterway from rivers in mainland China. As these objects grew closer, however, it became clear that they weren't sacks at all, but something altogether more sinister.

James Lilley, then a CIA operative working at the US Consulate General in Hong Kong, recalled: "In a city called Wuzhou to the north there'd been a huge factional battle in which people were executed by the winning side. They'd tied their hands behind their backs, shot them and pushed them in the river. These bodies floated down into Hong Kong, we could see them floating down..."

Terrifying rumours had been emerging from China for months that the country was in chaos, and the bloated corpses that choked up Victoria Harbour confirmed the worst. With the support of China's army, gangs of youths known as the Red Guard were roaming the land torching schools, destroying offices, and attacking – often killing – anyone who got in their way. There were even reports of cannibalism. In the southern Chinese province of Guangxi, at least 137 people were killed, cooked and devoured in punishment for the crime – real or imagined – of being against the country's absolute ruler Chairman Mao.

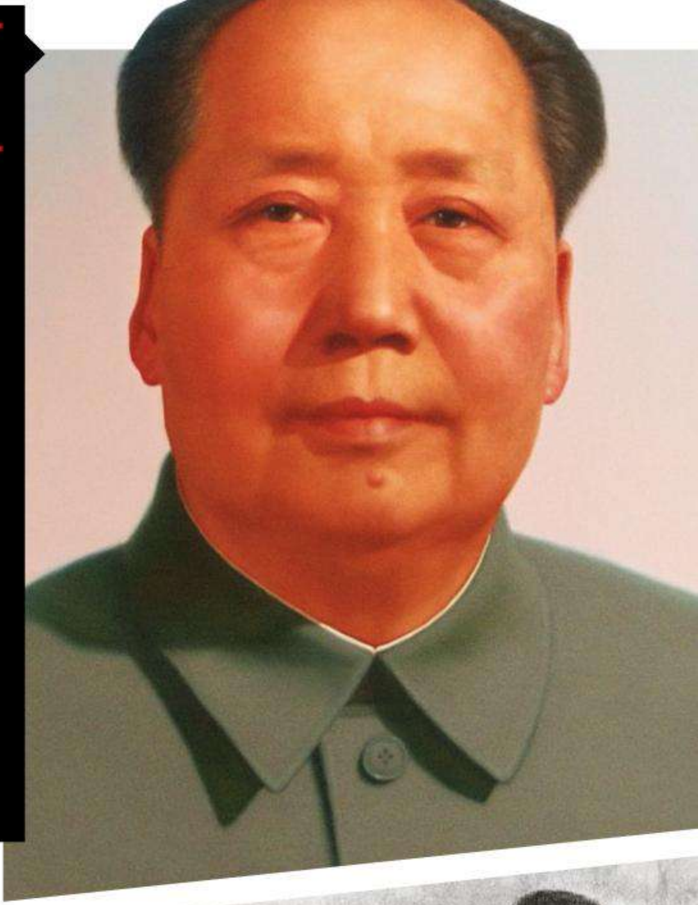
The young fanatics who made up Mao's Red Guard had been primed since birth by his teachings. The tidal wave of terror they now unleashed upon the nation was – they believed – integral to what their idol was calling the Cultural Revolution. Little did they suspect that they had actually been duped and were simply pawns in Mao's scheme to save his political skin. Or indeed that, when the time came, he would cynically destroy them, too.

MAO ZEDONG – THE BOOKISH REVOLUTIONARY

Mao Zedong was a librarian turned revolutionary. Born in 1893 into a peasant family, he moved to Beijing in 1919 where he found work in the city's university library, and became a co-founder of China's Communist Party (CCP). By 1927, the CCP's activities had become so troublesome that China's nationalist leader Chiang Kai-shek went after them. Mao would spend the next 22 years at war, first against Chiang Kai-shek and then Japan, which, in 1937, invaded China.

As his military victories mounted, Mao's fame as an inspirational leader spread and a vast movement of largely peasant revolutionaries grew around him. By 1949, this army of farmers had booted the Japanese out, and chased Chiang's nationalists off the mainland to Taiwan. It now endorsed Mao as leader of the newly established People's Republic of China. More than 20 million Chinese had been killed in fighting during the previous two decades, and Mao's speeches now seemed to offer real hope to a people who had suffered terribly. That hope, though, was to be short lived.

According to Marxist theory, for a communist society to succeed it must emerge from an industrialised, capitalist economy – not a rural, feudal one, which China's largely was. Mao's solution to this, like Stalin's before him in Soviet Russia, was to rush the country towards industrialisation. In 1958, he launched a huge social engineering project he called the Great Leap Forward – it was an unmitigated disaster. Overnight, millions of Chinese farmers were turned into steelworkers and miners. With few left to tend the fields, the harvests failed. Upwards of 38 million starved to death and as the death toll rose, so did opposition to Mao's policies among the communist leadership. It was this opposition and Mao's refusal to admit he was wrong that sowed the seeds of the turmoil to come.



MADAME MAO TAKES A BOW

By 1960, Mao's former allies in the CCP, men such as Deng Xiaoping, wanted closer ties with Russia – and Mao gone. Toppling the revolution's poster boy was never going to be an option, though, so instead they tried to sideline him by turning him into an empty icon with no real power.

But the shrewd and politically calculating Mao wasn't about to forsake his empire. Revolution had brought him to power, he reasoned, and revolution could help him retain it – this time in the form of a cultural one. To help him, Mao turned to his (fourth) wife Jiang Qing, also known as Madame Mao.

This former film star was seen by the public as their leader's glamorous and devoted wife. In private, however, their marriage was a loveless sham and she a bad-tempered schemer. Nevertheless, he trusted her, and as culture was her forte, she'd be ideal to stage manage his Cultural Revolution. In May 1966, he announced the politicisation of the arts, and appointed Madame Mao artistic adviser to the army. She immediately set about attacking artists and banning works she deemed 'capitalist'.

China was subjected to Madame Mao's censorship and propaganda campaign for the next ten years. All art from other countries was outlawed, while a billion people were encouraged to watch the few indoctrinating films and plays she would endorse. Every one of these saccharine works carried the same message – sacrificing yourself for the revolution is an honourable act. For an entire generation of Chinese children, it was the most powerful idea their young minds were exposed to as they became hard wired to kill and to die for the cult of Chairman Mao.

IN NUMBERS

27 MILLION

'class traitors' were worked to death in Laogai (re-education) camps

18.77 MILLION guns were in civilian hands during the factional fighting

1 film per year was released by Madame Mao's propaganda machine

68,000

Beijing citizens were subject to Struggle Sessions in a single month (July-August 1968)

54 months – how long the Cultural Revolution's mass killings went on for

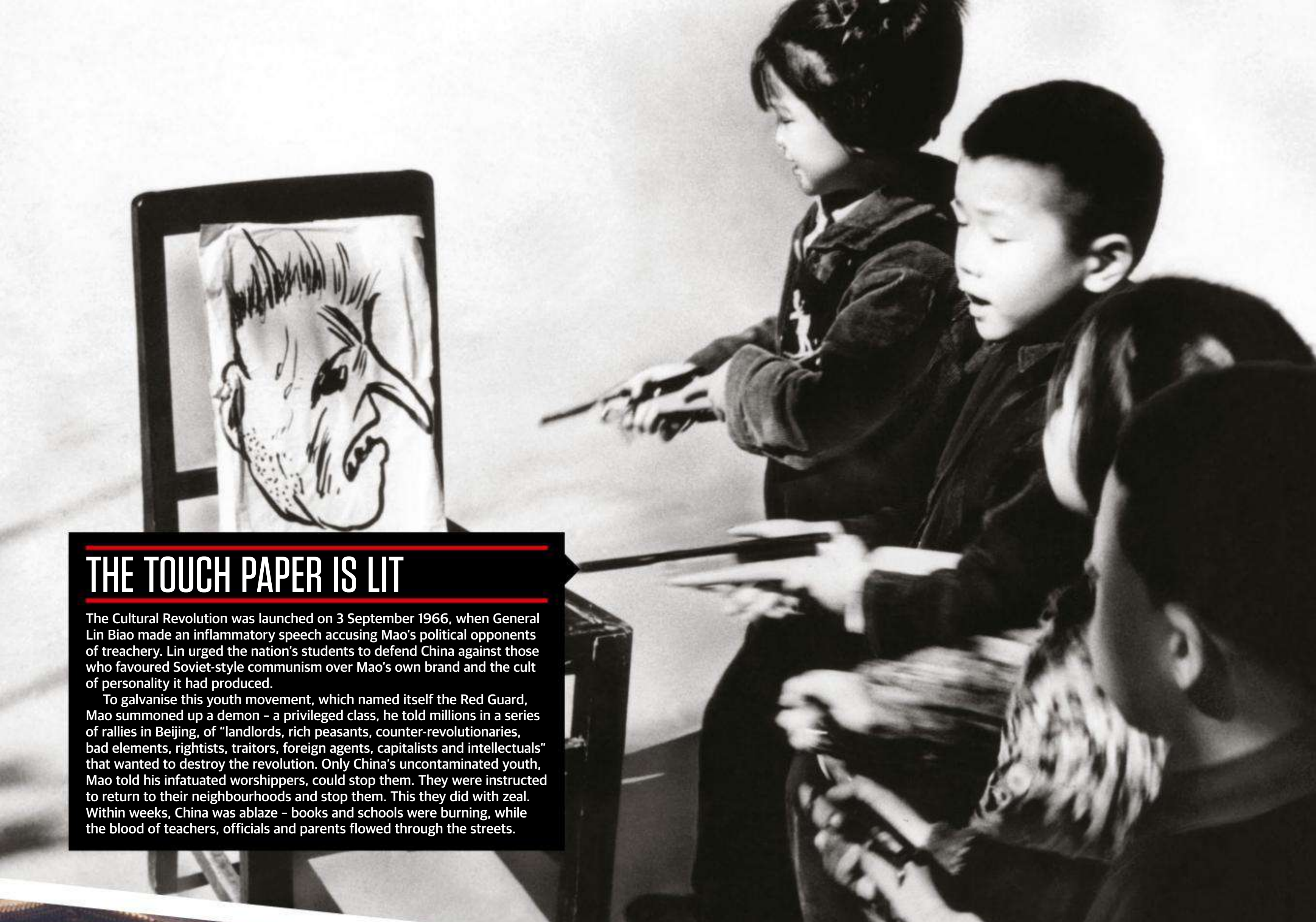
4,922 places of "historical or cultural interest" were destroyed in Beijing alone

77 the age Madame Mao was when she died in prison in 1991, allegedly by her own hand

THE BILLION-SELLING LITTLE RED BOOK

While China's youth would be the agents of Mao's Cultural Revolution, its military would be his muscle. In 1964, chief of the People's Army (PLA) Lin Biao produced a handbook of Mao's teachings that became known as *The Little Red Book*. When Mao shrewdly named Lin as his successor in August 1966, Lin responded by heavily promoting it.

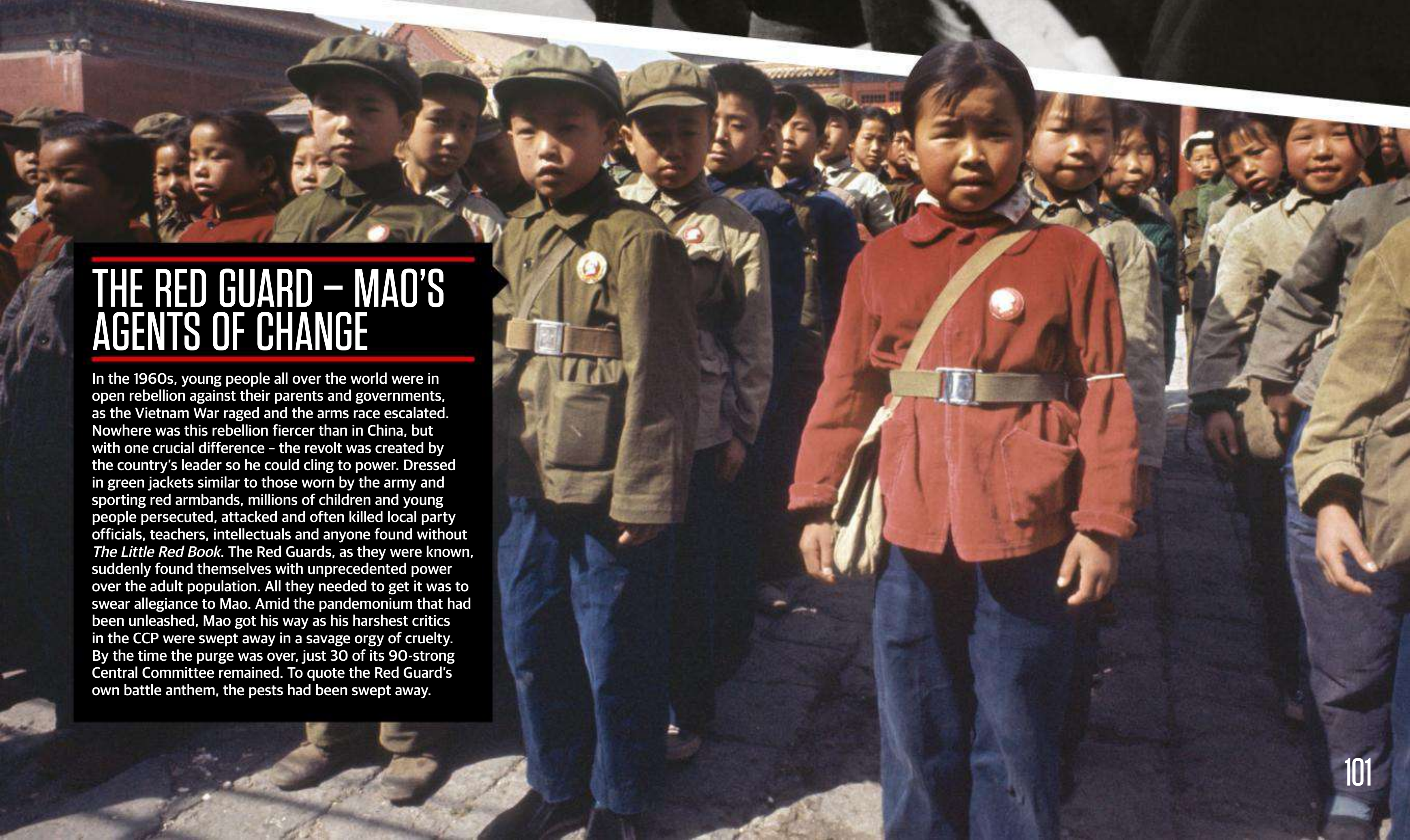
Alongside the AK-47, the book became standard issue in China's 2 million-strong army, and under Lin's orders, about a billion were printed. Filled with Mao's aphorisms – such as, "Political power grows out of the barrel of a gun" – it became Cold War China's bible.



THE TOUCH PAPER IS LIT

The Cultural Revolution was launched on 3 September 1966, when General Lin Biao made an inflammatory speech accusing Mao's political opponents of treachery. Lin urged the nation's students to defend China against those who favoured Soviet-style communism over Mao's own brand and the cult of personality it had produced.

To galvanise this youth movement, which named itself the Red Guard, Mao summoned up a demon – a privileged class, he told millions in a series of rallies in Beijing, of "landlords, rich peasants, counter-revolutionaries, bad elements, rightists, traitors, foreign agents, capitalists and intellectuals" that wanted to destroy the revolution. Only China's uncontaminated youth, Mao told his infatuated worshippers, could stop them. They were instructed to return to their neighbourhoods and stop them. This they did with zeal. Within weeks, China was ablaze – books and schools were burning, while the blood of teachers, officials and parents flowed through the streets.



THE RED GUARD – MAO'S AGENTS OF CHANGE

In the 1960s, young people all over the world were in open rebellion against their parents and governments, as the Vietnam War raged and the arms race escalated. Nowhere was this rebellion fiercer than in China, but with one crucial difference – the revolt was created by the country's leader so he could cling to power. Dressed in green jackets similar to those worn by the army and sporting red armbands, millions of children and young people persecuted, attacked and often killed local party officials, teachers, intellectuals and anyone found without *The Little Red Book*. The Red Guards, as they were known, suddenly found themselves with unprecedented power over the adult population. All they needed to get it was to swear allegiance to Mao. Amid the pandemonium that had been unleashed, Mao got his way as his harshest critics in the CCP were swept away in a savage orgy of cruelty. By the time the purge was over, just 30 of its 90-strong Central Committee remained. To quote the Red Guard's own battle anthem, the pests had been swept away.

THE REVOLUTIONARIES ARE BETRAYED

By 1967, Red Guard units had overthrown party authorities in entire districts and the country had become engulfed in a civil war-like chaos. By the time rival factions began emerging in the Red Guard, Mao's political opponents had been suitably marginalised, and he could now afford to crush the revolt he had instigated. In the summer of 1968, Mao ordered the Red Guard to disband. Lin Biao's PLA seized buildings occupied by Red Guards and millions of young people were forced into the countryside to toil in the fields. Those who resisted were executed, or killed if they put up a fight. Hundreds of thousands of loyal Mao followers were slaughtered, and it would take three years for the bloodletting to abate. Mao had sacrificed an entire generation for his own cynical political ends.

ASSASSINATION AND INTRIGUE

By 1971, with the Red Guard effectively disposed of, Mao now turned his attention to his loyal general and named successor Lin Biao. The Cultural Revolution had made Lin a powerful man, perhaps too powerful. The military leader, fearing that he was at risk of being purged, plotted to assassinate the 78-year-old chairman.

Mao, though, was quickly onto him. The planned coup was soon exposed and Lin and his family tried to flee to Moscow. But before they could get there, the plane they were travelling on mysteriously crashed, killing everyone on board. To this day speculation remains rife that the crash was no accident. With Lin out of the way, and no obvious successor to Mao's throne, the power mongering began in earnest.

The road to revolution

1958

The Great Leap Forward
Intending to catapult China into the industrial age to bring about a revolution, Mao instead creates a huge famine as farmers abandon the land for factories.

1960-65

Communist party splits
Due to differences over China's future economic development, the CCP fractures. Mao is increasingly criticised by moderates like Deng Xiaoping.

1964-65

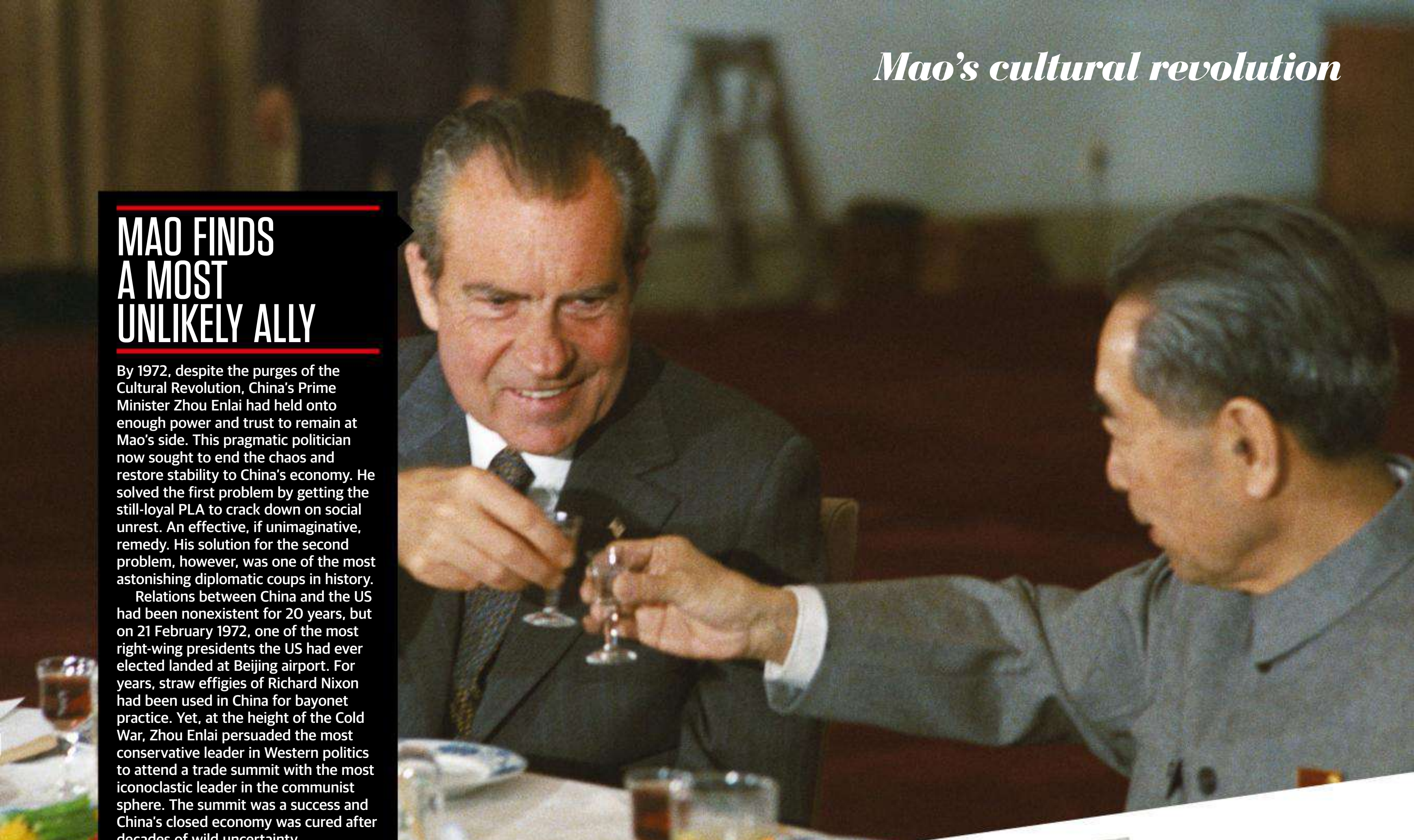
Little Red Book published
The head of the People's Liberation Army (PLA) Lin Biao emerges as a supporter of Mao. He creates *The Little Red Book* to indoctrinate his troops.

May 1966

Madame Mao put in charge
Mao appoints his wife Jiang Qing (aka Madame Mao) as artistic adviser to the army. She sets about propagandising all aspects of the Chinese arts.

August 1966

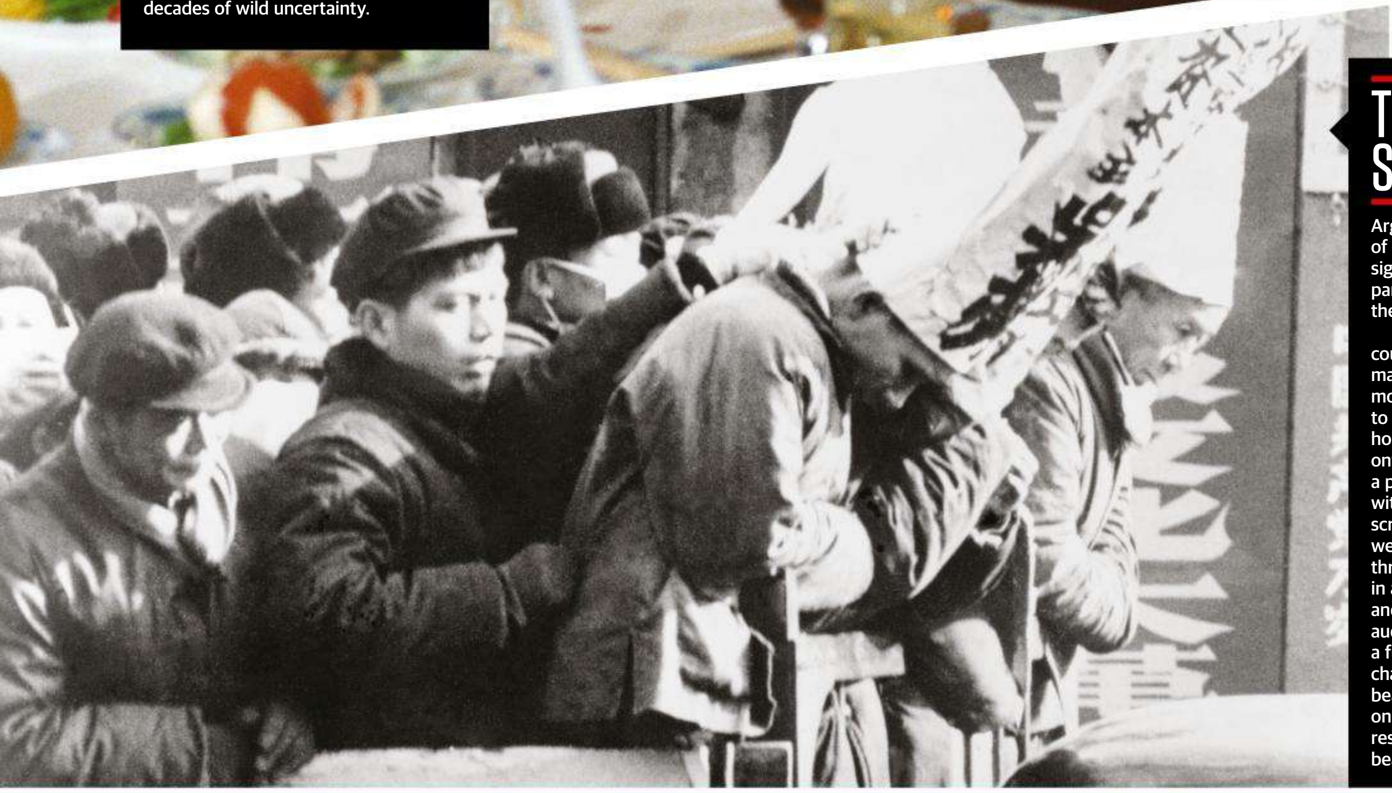
The stage is set
Mao announces that Lin Biao will eventually replace him as China's leader. All the pieces are now in place for Mao's Cultural Revolution to begin.



MAO FINDS A MOST UNLIKELY ALLY

By 1972, despite the purges of the Cultural Revolution, China's Prime Minister Zhou Enlai had held onto enough power and trust to remain at Mao's side. This pragmatic politician now sought to end the chaos and restore stability to China's economy. He solved the first problem by getting the still-loyal PLA to crack down on social unrest. An effective, if unimaginative, remedy. His solution for the second problem, however, was one of the most astonishing diplomatic coups in history.

Relations between China and the US had been nonexistent for 20 years, but on 21 February 1972, one of the most right-wing presidents the US had ever elected landed at Beijing airport. For years, straw effigies of Richard Nixon had been used in China for bayonet practice. Yet, at the height of the Cold War, Zhou Enlai persuaded the most conservative leader in Western politics to attend a trade summit with the most iconoclastic leader in the communist sphere. The summit was a success and China's closed economy was cured after decades of wild uncertainty.



THE STRUGGLE SESSIONS

Arguably the most iconic image of the Cultural Revolution is the sight of Mao's enemies being paraded through the streets on their way to Struggle Sessions.

Essentially kangaroo courts designed to rile up the masses, these began with a mob of Red Guards marching to a 'counter-revolutionary's' home or office, dragging them onto the street and hanging a placard around their neck with the nature of their 'crime' scrawled upon it. The victims were then theatrically paraded through the streets, sometimes in an open-topped truck, and brought to a crowded auditorium. Here, in front of a furious crowd, they were chastised, spat upon, and beaten sometimes for days on end. Thousands died as a result – either as a result of the beatings or from suicide.

September 1966

Revolution begins

Under Mao's instruction, Lin Biao makes an inflammatory speech designed to whip up the nation's youth so they'll oust any CCP officials who oppose Mao.

1966-68

Chaos is unleashed

Millions of youths organised into Red Guard units rampage through the country destroying culture and buildings, while attacking Mao's opponents.

July 1968

Betrayal of the Red Guard

With millions dead and the country in chaos, Mao – knowing his opponents have been toppled – sends in the PLA to destroy the Red Guard.

February 1972

The road to recovery

With order violently restored and Lin Biao disposed of, Mao opens up successful trade talks with the US salvaging both China's economy and his dictatorship.

9 September 1976

The end of an era

Mao dies in office aged 82. While the nation wails with grief, his cronies – including Madame Mao – are arrested. Deng Xiaoping replaces Mao as leader.

FORBIDDEN IN THE PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA

In Mao's China, 'political correctness' was used by the state's legislature to control, repress and bully its population, with often absurdly counter-productive consequences

COSMETICS

Along with perfume, as well as Western fashions, make up was banned because it didn't conform to the "ideology of the collective proletariat" – or to put it another way, it's use would allow too much scope for individual expression.

GOLF

This pastime so beloved by wealthy men in bad trousers was banned almost as soon as Chairman Mao came to power. The all-powerful leader officially outlawed the pastime across the country on the grounds that he felt it was "a sport for millionaires."

GAMBLING

Mao considered betting to be a hugely destructive vice and banned it in all its forms – from casinos to mah-jong – in 1949. In 1957, his government created the re-education through labour programme that was, in part, used to punish gamblers.

THE BEATLES

While the rest of the world was getting down to the music of the Fab Four during the 1960s, the work of Lennon and McCartney – like all Western rock music – was banned from the airwaves for being symbolic of "bourgeois western decadence."

CHINESE NEW YEAR CELEBRATIONS

The festivities were banned in 1967, during the darkest days of the revolution, on the grounds that the people needed to "change customs". They were eventually reinstated years later after Mao had died.

MOZART

Along with Bach, Beethoven and all the great classical composers, the complete works of one of the finest music composers in history were outlawed in Mao's China. Their crime? Being written in a pre-revolutionary time and society.

SPARROWS

These birds were exterminated in huge numbers in 1958 due to concerns that they ate too much of the rice harvest. Without sparrows, however, China's locust population boomed, harvests were wiped out and people starved in their millions.

PETS

Seen as a symbol of bourgeois decadence, owning a pet dog was against the law. Under Mao's rule, dogs were smuggled out of the country, or eaten by an undernourished populace. Dogs practically disappeared from China during this time.

THE SOUND OF MUSIC

All Hollywood films were banned under Mao, including the famous 1965 musical starring Julie Andrews. Not that the ban stopped Madame Mao from singing along. A huge fan of the film, she would watch it in her private screening room.

DR SEUSS

Or more specifically, *Green Eggs And Ham* for its "portrayal of early Marxism." How one could draw connections between the theory of dialectical materialism and a story about a creature offering a man called Sam lime-coloured food is anyone's guess!

THE END OF MAO AND HIS CRONIES

Chairman Mao died of heart failure on 9 September 1976 aged 82, and with him died the last embers of the Cultural Revolution. Mao's chief architects of the Cultural Revolution – Madame Mao, Wang Hongwen, Zhang Chunqiao and Yao Wenyua – now began lobbying to replace him.

Known collectively as the gang of four, this group had enjoyed years of privilege and power, and were despised throughout the Chinese Communist Party. Without Mao to protect them, they were soon arrested and imprisoned.

Ironically, the man who did replace Mao after his death was probably his greatest critic. Deng Xiaoping had been one of Mao's harshest detractors a decade before. Indeed, Deng's loud criticism of Mao's misguided economic policy had been instrumental in persuading Mao to unleash his dreaded Cultural Revolution.

THE DEATH TOLL

Mao was responsible for more deaths than anyone in history. A 2005 study put the estimated number of people who died under Mao's regime at 70 million. The Great Leap Forward's famine accounted for 38 million, while the Cultural Revolution was responsible for most of the remaining 32 million.

事业进行到底!
针织总厂

MAO'S LEGACY

In 2013, the 120th anniversary of Mao's birth saw both celebratory parades throughout China and Chinese critics reminding us of his atrocities. His position as father of modern China is indisputable, as is the role he played in liberating its people from oppressive rulers and foreign invaders. It's also true that, having reached such a vast audience, he was one of the 20th century's most influential thinkers. But his ideas about how to put Marxism into practice caused misery and famine. His refusal to accept this, and his willingness to sacrifice an entire generation rather than adapt, also reveal him to be one of history's great villains. A man who, despite his iconoclastic teachings, ruled China with greater ruthlessness than any of its ancient emperors.

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FIDEL CASTRO'S GUERRILLAS OUST FULGENCIO BATISTA

1 January 1959, Cuba

Eight years after retiring, Fulgencio Batista once again takes control of Cuba in 1952 with a corrupt regime. In response, Fidel Castro, a staunch communist, launches a revolution alongside Che Guevara to overthrow the leader. Although initially unsuccessful, Castro leads a 9,000-strong guerrilla army into the capital, Havana, and becomes prime minister. After years suppressing dissidents he steps down in 2008 and is replaced by his brother, Raul.

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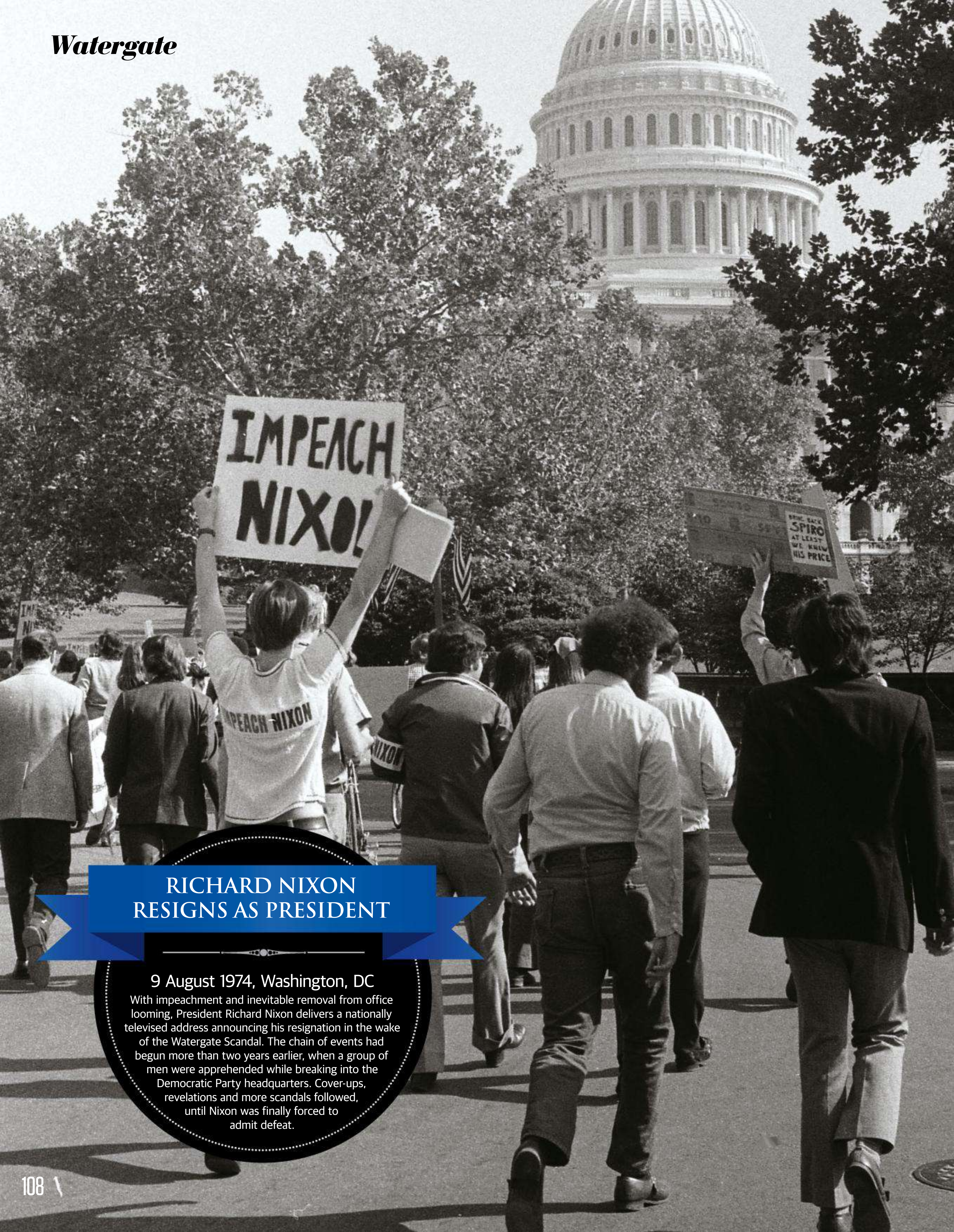

IMPEACH NIXON
IMPEACH NIXON
NIXON
BRING BACK SPIRO AT LEAST WE KNEW HIS PRICE

RICHARD NIXON RESIGNS AS PRESIDENT

9 August 1974, Washington, DC

With impeachment and inevitable removal from office looming, President Richard Nixon delivers a nationally televised address announcing his resignation in the wake of the Watergate Scandal. The chain of events had begun more than two years earlier, when a group of men were apprehended while breaking into the Democratic Party headquarters. Cover-ups, revelations and more scandals followed, until Nixon was finally forced to admit defeat.

Nixon's Scandal

WATERGATE

The events that brought down a US president and changed the political lexicon forever

With beads of sweat forming at his brow, the president of the United States of America looks straight down the lens of a television camera and says defiantly: "I'm not a crook." The president, Richard Nixon, is in the middle of an hour-long televised question-and-answer session with over 400 journalists. That the leader of the world's foremost superpower is forced to make such an astonishing statement shows the scale of a scandal that has spread like wildfire through the White House. It will lead to the first and only resignation of an incumbent president to date and become the defining political misdemeanour of the 20th century.

So seismic is Watergate that the last syllable will be added as a suffix to any public series of events deemed scandalous, yet the origins are seemingly small-fry in comparison to many political controversies – a burglary at the Watergate Hotel, the site of the Democratic National Committee.

At the time Richard Nixon delivers the quote, late in 1973, the walls are beginning to close around him, yet it will take almost another year for the president to tender his resignation following a 'death by a thousand cuts' that sees allies and aides resigning or cast ruthlessly aside. Days before Nixon resigns, beleaguered and facing impeachment, he consults an old colleague, Henry Kissinger, on his options. Seeing a broken man in torment at the prospect of only the second presidential impeachment and a potential criminal trial, Kissinger tries to console Nixon and even accedes to his request that the pair of them get down on their knees and pray. That it has come to this is an indication of the devastating nature of the revelations over a dirty-tricks campaign that struck at the heart of the White House.

18 months earlier, on 17 June 1972, five men had been arrested by police on the sixth floor of the Watergate Hotel building in Washington, DC. Noticing that a number of doors have been taped open to prevent them from locking, a security guard called the police. All five were arrested and found to have connections with the CIA and a group that raised funds for the re-election of Richard Nixon, the Committee for the Re-Election of the President (CRP), often satirically abbreviated to CREEP.

Nixon is a familiar face, having been a vice president to Dwight Eisenhower between 1952 and 1960 and previously unsuccessfully fighting John F Kennedy for the White House. During a debate, the future president falls foul of a relatively new medium in political campaigning – while voters listening on the radio believe that Nixon has triumphed, television viewers are won over by JFK's good looks and charm; they are equally dismayed by Nixon's hunched shoulders, jowly appearance and sweaty brow. But, having narrowly won the presidency in 1968, Nixon wins by a landslide in 1972 and enjoys approval ratings of more than 70 per cent – almost unheard of for a president in his second term.

However, Nixon deploys an array of dubious techniques to smear opponents. The CRP becomes a de facto intelligence organisation engaged in dirty campaigns against potential rivals: bugging offices, seeking material that could be used against opponents and attempting to prevent leaks to the media. While the CRP is technically and officially a private fundraising group, its existence and true nature is known to several federal government employees and Nixon himself – while he is aware that the CRP gathers intelligence on his rivals and administration's enemies, conversations reveal that he is either unaware of the scale of their activities or simply chooses not to know.

The five men arrested at the Watergate were likely there either to recover bugs that had been left on the telephone of senior Democrats or install new surveillance equipment but originally little significance is ascribed to the break-in. When the *Washington Post*'s rookie reporter Bob Woodward is sent to a local courthouse to cover the story, he discovers that the

WHY WATERGATE?

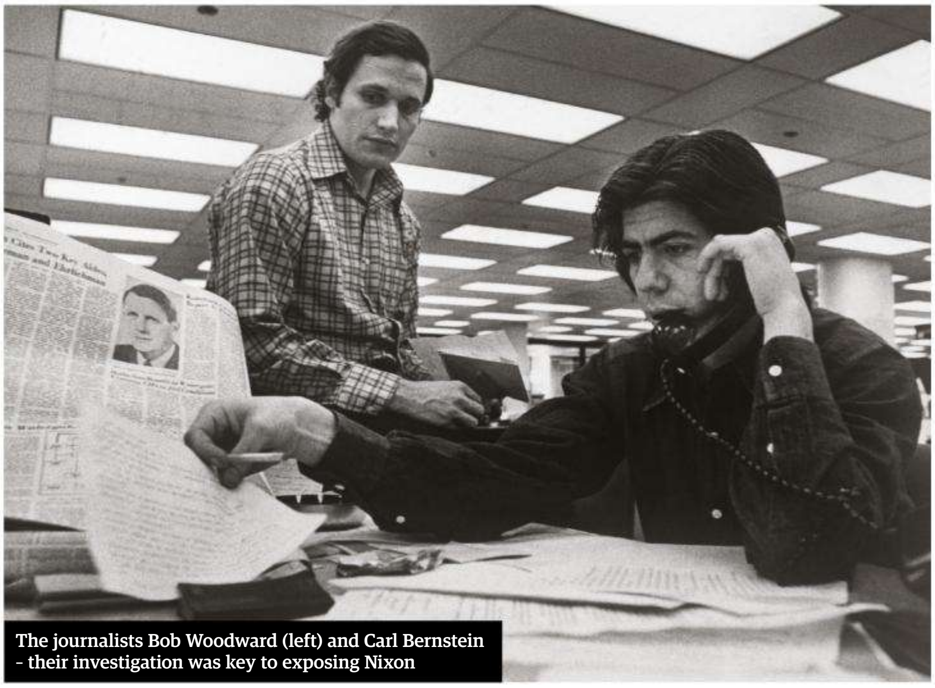
The motive behind the biggest political scandal of the 20th century

The reason the Watergate burglaries remained shrouded in mystery for decades was the conflicting reports from the various parties involved. Certainly, those involved in the burglaries – including prominent members of the White House Plumbers, a covert intelligence group acting with the tacit approval of Nixon – were working on behalf of Nixon, whether the president was aware of the specific activities or not. That Nixon learned about Watergate and sought a cover-up is beyond dispute.

Various sources indicate that government agencies believed that the Cuban government – one of USA's greatest ideological foes of the time – was funding the rival Democratic Party or that people in the upper echelons of government were keen to smear or bug Democratic bigwigs or retrieve previously installed wires. What may have begun as an attempt to prevent classified documents being leaked to the press degenerated into a dirty-tricks campaign against political opponents that was as widespread as it was inept.

No definitive motive has ever come to light, with even those involved seemingly evasive or confused – perhaps due to the passage of time, the desire to paint their own motives as righteous or contemporaneous misinformation – over the true motive behind the biggest US political scandal of the 20th century. Perhaps the old maxim about absolute power rings truest here, where 'The President's Men' ordered the burglary and the president approved the cover-up simply because they could.

The Select Senate Committee on Presidential Campaign Activities opened its investigation into the Watergate scandal on 17 May, 1973



The journalists Bob Woodward (left) and Carl Bernstein – their investigation was key to exposing Nixon

five men are no ordinary burglars, being found with unusually advanced bugging equipment and a surprisingly high-powered attorney. One of the men, James McCord, admits that he has previously worked for the CIA – Woodward connects him to E Howard Hunt and Charles Colson using phone books belonging to the men. Colson will claim that upon hearing of the arrests the day after they took place, Nixon hurled an ashtray at the wall in fury.

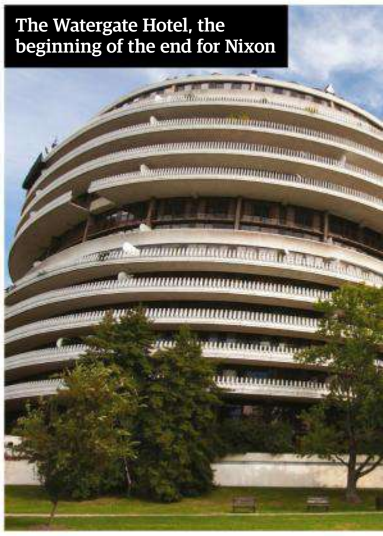
Hunt is another CIA operative with a colourful background – he had once been accused of involvement in the assassination of JFK; anecdotal evidence implies he may have been in Dallas at the time of the killing – and at the time was working for the White House Plumbers, a shadowy group that worked to prevent classified information being leaked to the media from the Nixon administration.

While the existence of the Plumbers – comprising a heady mix of CIA operatives, Republican aides and assorted security personnel – is known to Nixon, the extent of their activities is initially kept from him by senior staff. The group had come into existence from a desire to punish and undermine the Republicans' enemies – a memo from 1971 suggested the group use any federal machinery "to screw our political enemies" – but the line between what constitutes enemies of America, the Nixon administration and the Republican Party becomes hopelessly blurred. Colson is a special counsel, essentially a lawyer, and Woodward realises that he, unlike Hunt, is a genuine link between the Watergate burglary and upper echelons of the White House.

In 1972, Woodward is teamed with another reporter, Carl Bernstein, and the pair is urged to develop the story by the *Post*'s executive editor. Woodward contacts an FBI source he has previously used, and using an elaborate system of signals and instructions he is told that the scandal originates in the White House. The source is referred to as Deep Throat.

When Hunt, G Gordon Liddy and the five burglars are indicted on federal charges relating to the burglary, Hunt demands money from the CRP and White House to support the seven's legal fees – essentially hush money. They are all convicted in early-1973 and given stiff sentences, reflecting Judge John Sirica's belief that the men are lying about their external help. The president announces that a full investigation has occurred and found no evidence of wrongdoing – while in fact no investigation has taken place. In his announcement, Nixon says: "I can say categorically that his investigation indicates that no one on the White House staff, no one in this administration, presently employed, was involved in this very bizarre incident. What really hurts in matters of this sort is not the fact that they occur, because overzealous people in campaigns do things that are wrong. What really hurts is if you try to cover it up."

The words will prove to be prescient. Payments to the jailed men create a paper trail that implicates senior figures in the administration. Woodward deduces that the chief of staff, HR Haldeman and Attorney General John Mitchell are also implicated. Deep Throat claims the Watergate break-in was masterminded by Haldeman and also states that the lives of the two reporters may be in jeopardy: Woodward and Bernstein press on regardless and write a book, *All The President's Men*, later turned into a film, about their experience of the scandal.



The Watergate Hotel, the beginning of the end for Nixon

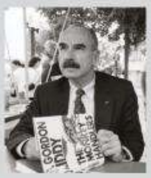
The accused Watergate burglars and their lawyer, 9 January, 1973

> "Nixon is a suspicious individual and sees conspiracies against him everywhere"

TIMELINE OF A SCANDAL

1972

17 June 1972
The White House Plumbers are arrested in the Democratic National Committee offices at the Watergate Hotel.



17 March 1973
Watergate burglar James McCord writes a letter to Judge John Sirica, claiming that he lied during trial and that the burglary had involved other government officials.

3 June 1973
John Dean tells Watergate investigators that he has discussed the cover-up with Nixon at least 35 times.

13 July 1973
Alexander Butterfield, a former presidential secretary, reveals that all conversations and telephone calls in White House offices have been covertly taped since 1971.

24 July 1974
Nixon is ordered to hand over tapes to investigators. Congress begins impeachment proceedings.

3 August 1974
The Smoking Gun tape, including a conversation between Nixon and Haldeman formulating the cover-up, is released. Opinion quickly turns against Nixon.

9 August 1974
Nixon resigns the presidency. Vice President Gerald Ford becomes president for the rest of the term, until 1977.

1 January 1975
John N Mitchell, John Ehrlichman and HR Haldeman are convicted of conspiracy, obstruction of justice and perjury. All three serve prison sentences.

4 May 1977
Nixon gives his first major interview about Watergate with journalist David Frost; this interview would be dramatised in the film *Frost/Nixon*.

1977

While Woodward and Bernstein are busy uncovering the paper trail to the White House, another revelation will prove just as disastrous for Nixon. James McCord sends a letter to Judge Sirica in March 1973, explaining that he has perjured himself, alleging orders from high up in the White House. Also in March, Nixon gets a lengthy rundown from John Dean on the scale of the dirty-tricks campaign and how the Watergate burglary came to happen. Nixon listens, appalled, as Dean recounts the web of deceit in which many of his staff are now trapped – Dean's prognosis is grim: "We have a cancer, close to the Presidency, that's growing. It's growing daily. It's compounding, it grows geometrically now because it compounds itself."

An exasperated Nixon sighs his way through Dean's prognosis, which reveals illegal activities, blackmail and perjury on a grand scale. It is clear the chain is only as strong as its weakest link – and those are cropping up everywhere as the net tightens. Asked about his personal feelings on the matter, Dean replies he is not confident the administration can ride it out. Even Dean himself is starting to feel the pressure and can't shake the impression that he is being set up as a scapegoat. He is probably correct: Nixon fires Dean, who turns star witness for the prosecution, and the president rolls the dice and gambles by disposing of some of his most trusted lieutenants, asking for the resignation of both Haldeman and Ehrlichman. Richard Kleindienst also resigns.

Coincidentally, at around this time, confirmation hearings begin for installing L Patrick Gray as permanent director of the FBI. During the hearings, Gray reveals that he has provided daily updates on the Watergate investigation to the White House and alleges that John Dean has "probably lied" to FBI investigators, enraging the White House. It is subsequently revealed that Gray has disposed of some of the contents of a safe belonging to Hunt – drawing the FBI into a web of deceit along with the CIA, the federal government and the Republican Party – forcing his resignation in April 1973. In just a few turbulent weeks Nixon had lost his three most trusted lieutenants, his attorney general and the head of the FBI. By May, more people disapprove than approve of Richard Nixon's presidency and a month later the Watergate hearings are being televised; viewers see John Dean tell investigators that he had discussed the cover-up with Nixon at least 35 times. Although Nixon can plausibly deny knowledge of the CRP campaigns and protect himself by firing staff, things are about to get much worse for the president.

Nixon is a suspicious individual who has few real friends and sees conspiracies against him everywhere. Given to brooding behaviour and capable of vulgar outbursts and ruthless behaviour, the president will later acknowledge that the American people knew little of his real personality. This side of his personality was to be his undoing. Known only to a few individuals, Nixon has had secret recording equipment installed in the Oval Office, Cabinet Room and his private office in the White House. The resulting tapes are vital in proving his knowledge of – and active participation in – the Watergate cover-up and wider culpability in allowing his aides to commit behaviour both immoral and illegal.

> "Upon hearing of the arrests the next day, Nixon hurls an ashtray at the wall in fury"

NIXON'S WEB OF LIES

The complex web of deception and conspiracy that brought a president to his knees

Whistleblower

Mark Felt

The identity of 'Deep Throat' was one of the greatest political mysteries – until 2005, when Felt announced that he was journalist Bob Woodward's source. Felt had been the FBI's associate director in 1973 and was repeatedly passed over for the job of director by Nixon.

Attorney general

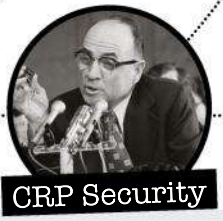
Richard Kleindienst

Kleindienst became aware of Watergate when G Gordon Liddy told him while playing golf that the break-in had originated within the CRP and that he should arrange for the burglars' release. He resigned the same day John Dean was fired and Haldeman and Ehrlichman quit.

Government agent

Bernard Barker

A Cuban emigrant who had served in the US armed forces and probably worked for both the FBI and CIA at various times, Barker was an early recruit to the White House Plumbers and served one year in jail for his part in the Watergate break-in.



CRP Security

James McCord

A former CIA agent who acted as the security coordinator for the CRP. He was arrested at the Watergate complex and later informed Judge John Sirica that he had perjured himself at the trial and that he had been ordered to carry out the break-in by senior White House figures.

Attorney general

John Mitchell

Mitchell was a personal friend and partisan colleague of Nixon's who was rewarded with the job of attorney general in 1969. A great believer in law and order, Mitchell was heavily involved in the so-called White House Horrors – a term he coined – of Nixon's presidency, okayed the Watergate burglary and had form in threatening journalists. Mitchell was found guilty of conspiracy, obstruction of justice and perjury and served a 19-month sentence.

Vice president

Gerald Ford

Ford had found himself surprisingly promoted following the resignation of Spiro Agnew in 1973. Within a year he had become president. One of his first acts was to pardon Nixon. He lost to Jimmy Carter in the 1977 presidential elections.

White House liaison

Gordon Liddy

Liddy was instrumental in forming the White House Plumbers and was responsible for many dirty-trick schemes. Liddy supervised the break-ins at the Watergate and acted as the chief liaison to the White House. He received a stiff 20-year sentence for his role but served only four and a half.

Government agent

Frank Sturgis

Supposedly implicated in the assassination of JFK and the Cuban Revolution, Sturgis had long known E Howard Hunt. He was one of the five men arrested while burgling the Watergate. Sturgis was jailed for his part in the break-in and later made lurid allegations about Kennedy's assassination.

Journalist

Bob Woodward

Woodward covered the trial of the five Watergate burglars, initially unaware of the significance. With coaxing from his editor and help from Carl Bernstein he was able to piece together a paper trail that was instrumental in exposing the White House's campaign of dirty tricks.

Solicitor general

Robert Bork

Bork was solicitor general when both the attorney general and deputy attorney general resigned over a refusal to sack Watergate Special Prosecutor Cox. Bork later claimed that Nixon promised him a Supreme Court position if he carried out this order. He complied but Nixon didn't fulfil his part of the deal.

White House aide

HR Haldeman

Haldeman was a tough White House aide who acted to block access to the president and protect his interests. Alongside Ehrlichman, he formed an impassable shield: as a result the pair became known as the 'Berlin Wall' – a reference to their activities and Germanic names.

Lawyer

Charles Colson

A lawyer who worked for Nixon, one of the Watergate Seven found guilty of obstruction of justice and who sentenced to seven months in prison. Following his release Colson found God, donating all his subsequent fees to charity.

Judge

John Sirica

John Sirica's presided over the trial of the Watergate burglars – handing out tough sentences in order to coerce admissions from them that they acted in concert with others. He later ordered Nixon to hand over tapes of White House conversations to Archibald Cox.

Deputy assistant to the president

Alexander Butterfield

Butterfield was responsible for the operation of the secret taping system, which Nixon had installed in the White House. His deposition was crucial in establishing the existence of the system – and the tapes that sealed Nixon's fate.

White House counsel

John Dean

Dean was referred to as the 'master manipulator of the cover-up' by the FBI. He turned on Nixon and became the star witness for the prosecution at the Senate Watergate Committee hearings and pleaded guilty to a single felony count after suspecting that he was being set up as a scapegoat. Dean had destroyed evidence following the Watergate burglary arrests and received a prison sentence, despite his co-operation. In later life he became a critic of the Republican Party.

CIA agent

Howard Hunt

Hunt had been drafted into Nixon's unofficial investigations unit – the White House Plumbers – charged with fixing 'leaks' to the media. He was involved in the planning of the Watergate burglaries and sentenced to over 30 months in prison.

FBI director

Patrick Gray

Gray was nominated to succeed Hoover as head of the FBI but resigned after less than a year on the job. Underestimating its significance, Gray had destroyed evidence from a safe belonging to E Howard Hunt. When the scale of the conspiracy became clear to him he resigned and spent years trying to clear his name.

Chief domestic advisor

John Ehrlichman

Ehrlichman ensured that Nixon was protected from unnecessary attention and worked as White House counsel before moving to a role as chief domestic advisor. From this position Ehrlichman launched vicious assaults on the president's enemies and created the White House Plumbers. He had worked with Nixon for over a decade – initially on his unsuccessful 1960 presidential bid – and never forgave Nixon for the lack of a presidential pardon. He served 18 months in prison and died in 1999.

CRP chairman

Maurice Stans

Stans was allegedly responsible for raising large amounts of cash in donations that Nixon kept in a White House safe. Stans denied any knowledge of Watergate and, though indicted for perjury and obstruction of justice, he was acquitted the following year.

Director of CRP

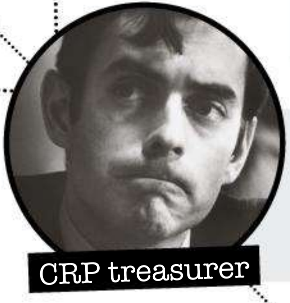
Jeb Magruder

Magruder served as a special assistant to the president until the spring of 1971, when he left to manage the CRP. He was heavily involved in Watergate and alleged that Nixon had prior knowledge of the affair. He served seven months in prison.

Watergate prosecutor

Archibald Cox

A respected lawman, Cox was appointed as the first special prosecutor in the Watergate case. Learning of the existence of secret tapes recorded at the White House, Cox pressed for their release. Cox was eventually fired but left with his reputation enhanced.



CRP treasurer

Hugh Sloan

Sloan was unwittingly responsible for endorsing cheques that went to pay the White House Plumbers. Once Sloan discovered the activities of the plumbers he resigned and became a source for Woodward and Bernstein.

IMPEACH THE HIEF!
NIXON
IMPEACH NIXON

Nixon met by an angry crowd while campaigning during the height of the Watergate scandal, 1974

Nixon has been at the sharp end of American politics for decades. He has made powerful friends and enemies alike and learned how to play dirty, even ordering tax investigations on Kennedy and 1972's Democratic presidential candidate, Hubert Humphrey. On the tapes, Nixon is heard to remark: "I can only hope that we are, frankly, doing a little persecuting. Right?"

In the run-up to the presidential election of 1972, when it looks like Ted Kennedy – brother of JFK – will be a potential opponent for the 1976 election, Nixon and his aides attempt to use the Secret Service and Inland Revenue Service to spy on the Democrat senator in the hope of discovering material they can use to smear him. Such operations have been learned over 25 years in politics – Nixon smears his first political opponents as communists or communist sympathisers during his 1946 and 1950 Congress election runs. His nickname, Tricky Dicky, is devised during 1950 and he finds it hard to shake. Nixon also uses the shooting of presidential hopeful George McGovern in 1972 as an opportunity to place a loyal man within a security protection detail on Ted Kennedy. The spy, Robert Newbrand, is to pass information back to the White House. "[W]e just might get lucky and catch this son of a bitch and ruin him for '76", says Nixon of Kennedy.

In light of what the president knows to be on the tapes, July 1973 brings a bombshell that Nixon instantly recognises as disastrous. The aide responsible for the president's schedule and day-to-day archiving testifies that Nixon has had recording equipment secretly installed throughout White House offices. The ramifications are obvious, with the tapes laying bare just how widespread the use of dirty tricks are and how the orders frequently come direct from the president.

Archibald Cox, leading the hearings, instantly subpoenas the tapes. Realising the gravity of the situation, Nixon refuses the request, citing executive privilege and – for the next few months – begins a high-stakes game of bureaucratic cat and mouse in an effort to keep the tapes in his possession. In October, just days after losing his vice president, Spiro Agnew, to an investigation into past corruption, Nixon astonishes his advisors by ordering Cox's firing – something only Elliot Richardson, the attorney general, could legally do.

The president, furious at Cox's intransigence over refusing to accede to an offer to appoint a Democrat senator to listen to the tapes, rather than hand them over, makes it clear that he will accept the resignation of Richardson and Deputy Attorney General William Ruckelshaus if they do not sack Cox. On a night in October, dubbed the Saturday Night Massacre, Richardson refuses the order and promptly resigns. Having been given the same order by Nixon, Ruckelshaus also refuses and resigns, leaving Solicitor General Robert Bork to reluctantly carry out the order.

Public opinion quickly turns against Nixon, with protests greeting the president's public appearances. In November, he goes on the offensive, delivering a televised question-and-answer session where he delivers the famous "I'm not a crook" speech. He claims the tapes will exonerate him, but knows that this is not the case and that his political manoeuvrings are merely buying time: his presidency is a busted flush. Nixon had earlier recognised the danger the tapes posed and asked Haldeman to dispose of them: "Most of it is worth destroying", says the president. "Would you like – would you do that?" Haldeman replies in the affirmative but crucially is not as good as his word, perhaps believing that if he is seen to be responsible for destroying the tapes he would make the president bulletproof and seal his own fate.

In July 1974, having exhausted various means of preventing their release, including releasing transcripts and heavily redacted tapes, Nixon is ordered to give up the tapes to investigators and Congress moves to impeach the president. Any possibility that Nixon might hang on disappears in August, when a previously unheard tape is released. The evidence is known as the Smoking Gun tape. On the tape Nixon is heard advising Haldeman to advise the CIA to stop the FBI from investigating the Watergate break-in: "When you

"Public opinion turns against Nixon, with protests greeting the president's public appearances"

WHO WAS DEEP THROAT?

Bob Woodward of *The Washington Post* knew a source at the FBI who fed him regular information. When the Watergate scandal broke, the source was in a perfect position to observe the presidency and resulting investigation. His source was Mark Felt, an associate director at the FBI. Woodward referred to him as 'My Friend' but the *Post*'s editor, Howard Simons, renamed him 'Deep Throat' – a reference to a pornographic film of the time – to protect his identity.

The pseudonym fired the public imagination: Woodward would move a flowerpot on the balcony of his apartment when he desired a meeting; Felt would respond by leaving a time written on the journalist's daily newspaper. The pair would meet in an underground garage in Virginia.

The source fed information about the investigation to Woodward, revealing a complex web of deceit to bring down the president. Woodward and colleague Carl Bernstein protected Deep Throat's identity for 30 years before Felt outed himself in 2005, just three years before his death.

EASTERN
ngton Star-News
ON TV AT 9 TONIGHT
on Resigning
Washington Star-News
Nixon Resigning
Shattering of an Image

President Nixon's resignation created a media storm

get in these people, when you… get these people in, say: 'Look, the problem is that this will open the whole, the whole Bay of Pigs thing' [...] they should call the FBI in and say that we wish for the country, don't go any further into this case, period!"

Opinion is divided as to what 'the Bay of Pigs thing' refers to, though the implication to the CIA is obvious – if they do not assist in the Watergate cover-up, sensitive information regarding the agency's role in the aborted CIA-backed invasion of Cuba in 1961 will be released by the White House. The tape constitutes authentic evidence that the president was involved in the Watergate cover-up and attempted to pressure federal agencies into participating.

Senior Republicans gather to tell Nixon that he has no support in Congress. Ever the political survivor and having claimed that he would never resign, even Nixon realises that he has exhausted his options. The president promptly resigns, knowing that he will be impeached if he remains in office. His resignation speech is broadcast from the White House the night before he leaves for his home in California. Typically, his speech wrongfoots many, with allusions to the difficulties of office and oblique mentions of wrongdoing, notions of duty and vague expressions of regret.

Nixon also includes a lengthy summation of what he sees as his achievements in office, preferring them to discussions of Watergate – a trope that would become familiar in years to come. Nixon never escapes the taint of Watergate but he becomes a respected statesman on the American and global stages and wins acclaim for his domestic and foreign accomplishments. He is almost immediately pardoned by his successor, Gerald Ford, in a move that many decry.

Nixon avoids jail but the scale of wrongdoing – and the depth of the unpleasantness that modern US politics constitute – takes voters by surprise and reveals those at the top of government as venal, vulgar, deceitful and greedy. Most of all, it shows US presidents to be flawed and long after his resignation Nixon still inspires fascination.

Upon leaving the White House, Nixon spends most of his time at his house in California – driving to a small outhouse on his golf buggy every day to work on his memoirs. In 1977, short of cash and keen to rehabilitate his reputation, he agrees to the now-famous series of interviews with journalist David Frost. The trained lawyer and long-serving politician initially runs rings around the under-prepared Frost, but on the final day of interview the disgraced president finally opens up on the Watergate scandal: "I let down the country. I brought myself down. I gave them a sword and they stuck it in. And they twisted it with relish."

The former president may have admitted some culpability but he never shakes off his ardent belief that the ends justified the means. Nixon had relied on a range of dirty tricks – many illegal – to claim power, and then affect change as he saw it. The apparently insignificant burglary that brought down the 37th president of the United States was just one of the ways that he bent the law – it's just that this time, he got caught.

An emotional Nixon gives his farewell speech at the White House, August 1, 1974

THE AFTERMATH

Following his resignation Nixon cut a sorry figure. Inconsolable at losing the job he had coveted so deeply, wounded by the thought he had betrayed the American people and lost with little to do at his home in California, he quickly became ill and almost died. However, he worked to rehabilitate himself and by the time of his death was a respected political elder; sought after for his advice by sitting presidents and even former opponents like Hillary Clinton. When he died it was revealed that he had requested not to have a state funeral, as is the usual custom for deceased US presidents.

In his resignation speech, Nixon made much of the advances he thought had been made in foreign policy – where many US presidents believe their legacy will be judged. Opinions vary on his efforts here and Vietnam will always tarnish the reputation of Nixon and his predecessor, Lyndon B Johnson. However, Nixon's work at home is perhaps more impressive. He forged ahead with the desegregation of the South, created numerous environmental acts to protect the US ecology and steered a course that avoided the ideological impulses of following Republican presidents.

Nixon strikes a strange figure among US presidents – oddly awkward and self-aware, yet driven by a conviction that the president could not be wrong and that the interests of the ruling administration and United States were indivisible. He displayed the brooding character of someone bearing a great burden; his own self-image was laid bare in a quote from his resignation speech: "Sometimes I have succeeded and sometimes I have failed, but always I have taken heart from what Theodore Roosevelt once said about the man in the arena, 'whose face is marred by dust and sweat and blood, who strives valiantly, who errs and comes short again and again because there is not effort without error and shortcoming, but who does actually strive to do the deed, who knows the great enthusiasms, the great devotions, who spends himself in a worthy cause, who at the best knows in the end the triumphs of high achievements and who at the worst, if he fails, at least fails while daring greatly.'"

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CHILEAN COUP D'ETAT INSTALLS A DICTATOR

11 September 1973, Chile

Sponsored by the anti-communist United States, General Augusto Pinochet leads a coup to oust the Marxist president of Chile, Salvador Allende, after his policy of nationalisation is deemed unconstitutional by the centre-right majority that voted him into power in 1970. Pinochet's presidency sees the end of civilian rule until he steps down in 1990. He is responsible for thousands of murders and is later prosecuted for tax evasion.

PERON OVERTHROWN IN ARGENTINE COUP D'ETAT

24 March 1976, Buenos Aires

After months of careful planning, a right-wing coup to overthrow President Isabel Peron – the first female president in the world – is set in motion. Her time in office was riddled with political and economic strife and she is kidnapped on the morning of 24 March 1976. Argentina is now controlled by the army and martial law is enforced. The coup's aftermath and the following Dirty War sees thousands killed or forced to disappear.

© Getty

HUNDREDS DIE IN TIANANMEN SQUARE

15 April – 4 June 1989, Beijing, China

On 15 April 1989, thousands of students march on Tiananmen Square demanding a more democratic Chinese government through peaceful protest. However, after seven weeks of refusing to move until their demands are met, tanks rumble through the capital's streets. On 3 and 4 June, hundreds of protestors are shot dead, causing a global outcry. Unfortunately, democracy in China is no closer now than it was back then.

© Getty

Fall of the Berlin Wall

Eye Witness

ANDREAS RAMOS

Born in Colombia and raised in the USA, Ramos lived in West Germany for seven years before moving to Denmark. He's authored ten books, including a number of best-selling titles. He's also a lecturer in Digital Marketing at the Silicon Valley Business School. He remains an outspoken commentator on the fall of the Berlin Wall and hopes future generations will remember its importance.

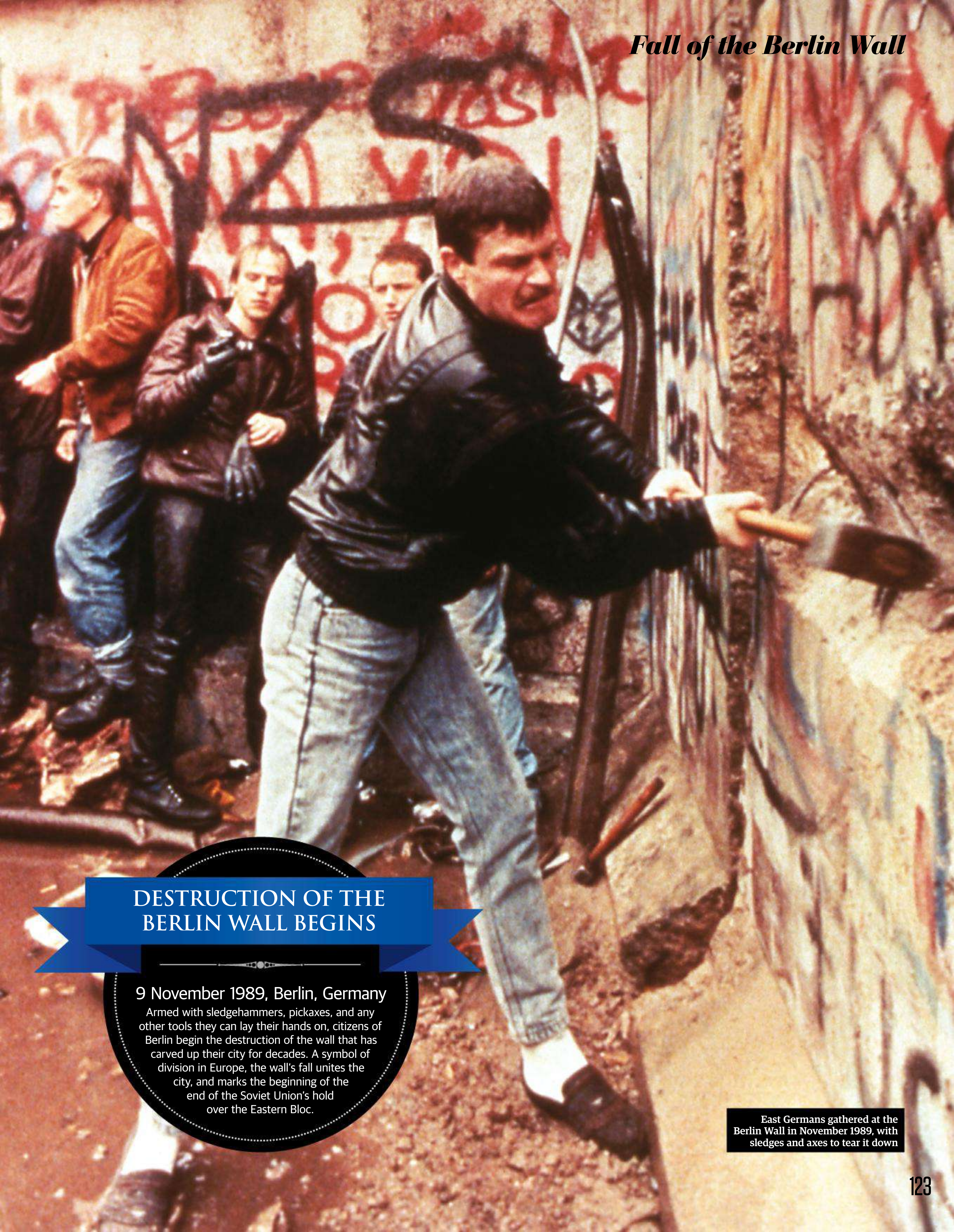
> "As we made our way into West Germany we could all sense that the whole continent was about to change forever"

For 28 years, the Berlin Wall stood resolute, an imposing symbol of the Soviet Union's cast-iron hold over much of Eastern Europe. For almost three decades, the citizens of the Wall's Eastern side lived under the watchful eye of the German Democratic Republic, a semi-autonomous government laid in place by its Soviet masters in Moscow. Heavily guarded and laced with barbed wire, the 155-kilometre (96-mile)-long, 3.6-metre (11.8-foot)-high structure ensured the German capital remained divided through the fearful years of the Cold War. No East German was permitted to cross the border into the West; the sights and sounds of a free Berlin a few hundred yards away a constant reminder of how fractured Europe had become in the decades following the end of World War II. But as the 1980s drew to a close, this symbol of division became the breaking point in European socialism. Based in Denmark at the time, science and technology student Andreas Ramos travelled to Berlin to witness first-hand the frustrations of a continent boil over in the streets of a divided city.

"When I went to study at Heidelberg (in southwest Germany) in 1978 no one in government, academia or the general public could imagine the Berlin Wall would ever fall or the Soviet Union could collapse", explains Ramos. "NATO was built on the premise of eternal conflict with the USSR. But by the mid-1980s, after the USSR's failure in Afghanistan, it was clear the Soviet Union had to change. But collapse? They simply hadn't planned for change. It all happened on the streets, not within the government. I was in Germany for seven years and then went to Denmark to work on a doctoral dissertation. I'd been to Berlin many times and had friends there. From the edge of the Wall we watched everything, and when the East Germans began to tear down the wall, we joined them."

A month prior, the first metaphorical cracks in the Soviet Union's hold on Eastern Europe started to show. Communication between Moscow and the German Democratic Republic (GDR) government led by hardline party leader Erich Honecker had broken down as the Motherland struggled to contain its rapidly unravelling vision for a united socialist future. Up until this point, the borders of the Eastern Bloc remained intact, but the growing pressure from refugees attempting to flee the failing communist system became too much for the neighbouring Hungarian government to ignore. On 19 August 1989, Hungary effectively opened its physical borders and allowed over 13,000 East Germans to surge across the border into Austria. As the refugees sought sanctuary in the West German embassy, it sent a shock wave through the infrastructure of the Eastern Bloc. A wave that would reach all the way to Berlin and beyond.

Back in the capital, the streets were more alive than ever. A previously morose and subdued city was now bustling as its citizens took up arms in peaceful protests. East Berliners could sense the government was starting to unravel. The resignation of Erich Honecker, the staunch idealist who had stated only months before that the Berlin Wall would stand tall for a century to come, had galvanised the nation's hope for change. The



DESTRUCTION OF THE BERLIN WALL BEGINS

9 November 1989, Berlin, Germany

Armed with sledgehammers, pickaxes, and any other tools they can lay their hands on, citizens of Berlin begin the destruction of the wall that has carved up their city for decades. A symbol of division in Europe, the wall's fall unites the city, and marks the beginning of the end of the Soviet Union's hold over the Eastern Bloc.

East Germans gathered at the Berlin Wall in November 1989, with sledges and axes to tear it down

Timeline of a nation uniting

CST

19 August 1989 — **Prior to the Wall's physical collapse, the political landscape regarding it is already falling apart. The opening of Hungary's borders with Austria can be seen as the initial catalyst.**

4 September — **Peaceful protest**
Following a similar influx of refugees into a now-open Czechoslovakia, a series of peaceful protests are organised across East Berlin.

18 October — **East German leader Erick Honecker is forced to resign by his own party following his refusal to change the city's immigration policies.**

4 November — **We are the people**
With Erick Honecker and his 'shoot to kill' edict removed, the Peaceful Revolution of 1989 reaches its height. The chant, "We are the people!" echoes through the streets of East German cities.

9.30am 9 November — **Crowds begin to gather all along the Berlin Wall as rumours of a policy change run amok.**

1.00pm — **The GDR holds a press conference where it announces all GDR citizens are permitted to cross over to West Berlin.**

5.05pm — **The first few East Berliners make their way into the West as guards quickly lose control of the situation.**

8.00pm — **Media announcement**
Huge crowds gather at the Berlin Wall, hacking it to pieces as the media televises the scenes around the world.

22 December — **Despite multiple breaches in the Wall, the Brandenburg Gate is officially opened for all Berliners to pass through.**

3 October 1990 — **With the Wall itself almost completely demolished, East and West Germany are united in a formal ceremony. The US, British and French governments relinquish stewardship of West Berlin into the hands of a new united and democratic German government.**

Regardless of age, class or background, chipping away at the 28 year-old Wall was a symbolic action that united a nation

HIS IN THE NAME OF THE PEOPLE

With the sun still high in the sky, citizens from both East and West Berlin clamber on top of the Wall

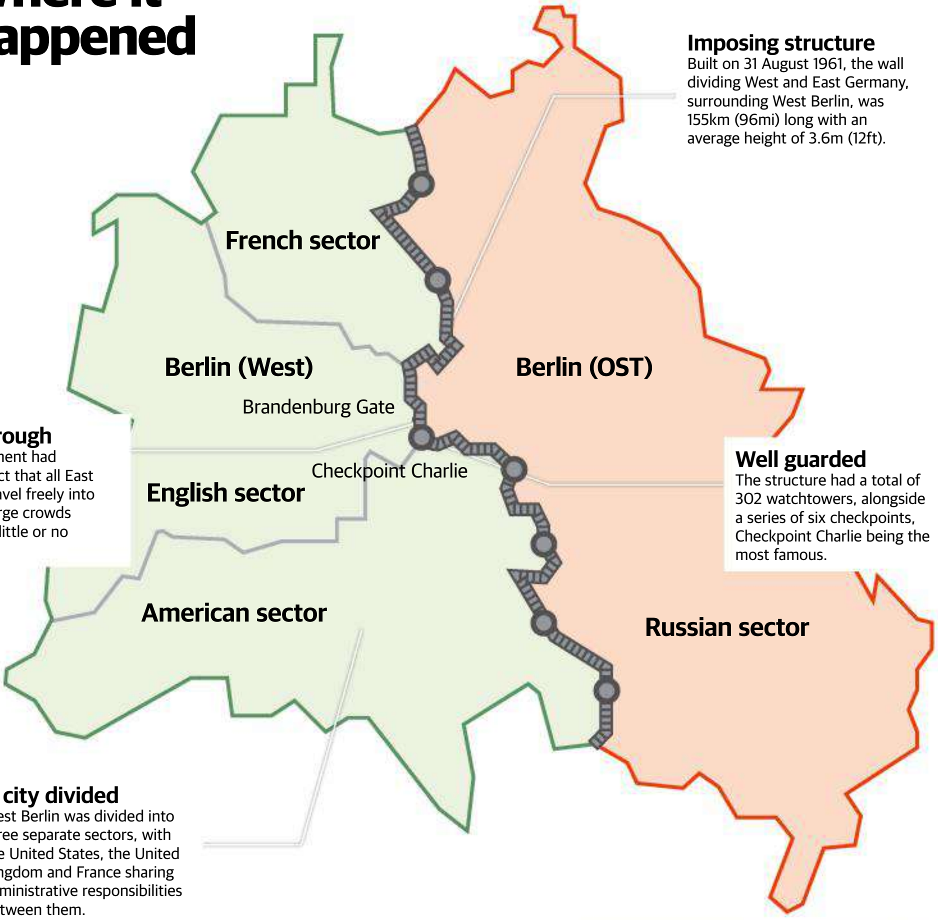
'Peaceful Revolution', as it came to be known, reached its height on 4 November 1989, an event that attracted Ramos and many others to Berlin. Arriving on the afternoon of 9 November, Ramos could sense an air of tension, but also one of burgeoning hope. "The build-up wasn't just in Germany; it was the whole year of revolutions across Eastern Europe. The Soviet Bloc was disintegrating, one nation after another", comments Ramos. "As we made our way into West Germany we could all sense that the whole continent was about to change forever."

That evening the inevitable finally became a reality. In the weeks since Honecker's forced resignation, his successors had attempted to rejuvenate the party's reputation by holding a series of press conferences that promised radical changes to national policies. Shortly before that day's official press conference, GDR's official and unofficial spokesman Günter Schabowski was handed a small note that confirmed all East Berliners were now allowed to cross the border into the West with the proper identification. However, without any other explanation to help him digest this news, Schabowski was thrust in front of a ravenous media. One garbled and mostly improvised statement later and it was official: the once impenetrable gates of East Germany were opening. The problem was, this news wasn't communicated down to the guards and officials manning the many guard posts along the wall. With frustration building among the crowds of East Berliners, the situation was a powder keg waiting to explode.

As the news started to flood across East Berlin, hundreds of people began to gather at each checkpoint demanding to let through into West Berlin. To Colombian-born Ramos, it was utter chaos, but it was chaos charged by hope rather than anger. "It was November and it was extremely cold that night, but in the excitement everyone was milling around in anticipation. Restaurants and bars, which by law were meant to close, were all open well into the early hours. Laws became meaningless that night," he recalls. "People came from all over Europe: we spoke in many languages. There were British, French, Spaniards, Italians, Greeks and many Scandinavians, plus, of course, the Germans. That night, Berlin was Europe. Remember; at the time, there were no cell phones, no video, no Twitter, no Facebook, no selfies, so remarkably, there aren't that many photos of that night. Today, of course, there would be billions of photos."

As Ramos and his friends approached the Wall itself, the air seemed alight with a mixture of confusion, frustration and apprehension. "As the news of the law changing spread it became a massive sense of relief, of 'it's over', of excitement. After decades of baseless promises from politicians and pointless dreams of uniting of families, it suddenly became possible in a delirious joy", he says. "Someone wrote it was the world's largest street party, and it was. 5 million people in one city. East Germans flooded across the borders and went visiting throughout all of Germany. The cities declared free bus and streetcar tickets for them, free museums

Where it happened



Imposing structure
Built on 31 August 1961, the wall dividing West and East Germany, surrounding West Berlin, was 155km (96mi) long with an average height of 3.6m (12ft).

Breaking through
Once the government had broadcast the edict that all East Berliners could travel freely into West Germany, large crowds passed over with little or no identity checks.

Well guarded
The structure had a total of 302 watchtowers, alongside a series of six checkpoints, Checkpoint Charlie being the most famous.

A city divided
West Berlin was divided into three separate sectors, with the United States, the United Kingdom and France sharing administrative responsibilities between them.

> "From the edge of the Wall we watched everything, and when the East Germans began to tear down the wall, we joined them"

and zoos, free everything for the visiting East Germans. It was an incredible time."

The Wall was suddenly no longer the impenetrable barrier to another world. East Berliners were flooding into the other side of the city while others started attacking the wall with any tool they could find. The military looked on dumbfounded. Some of them even joined in the demolition job. "It was clear that both governments, East and West German, plus the US military, had lost control", comments Ramos. "They stood by helplessly, watching everyone bustle around. I talked with East German soldiers who told me their rifles were empty. No bullets. They looked forward to coming across the border. West German police, who are always so orderly and authoritative, just watched. They didn't know what to do; this had never been planned." He adds, "many of us pushed through the wall and went to the East Berlin side. It was mutual: West Germans and East Germans tore down the wall together to unite themselves once more."

Breaking down the wall itself was no easy task, but it became a cathartic coming together of a nation suddenly reunited in matter of hours. Citizens from East and West gathered on each side to start hacking away, pulling away chunks and lofting them on high, like mementos from a fun day out. Ramos himself was right in the middle of the crowds tearing into the wall that evening. "Opening the Wall went on for hours", he remarks. "It was made of thick slabs of concrete, nine or twelve feet (three or four metres) high. Small holes were made with hammers, but to open the wall so large numbers of people could pass, industrial machinery was needed. Somehow, West German construction companies showed up with jackhammers and cranes which broke apart the slabs and lifted them out of the way."

In the following months, Germany was unified as a single, free nation for the first time since WWII and Europe – and the world – was changed forever. Germany would go on to become an economic superpower, but that chilly evening in Berlin has remained an iconic image of social and political upheaval. "It was one of the most astonishing events of my life. It was 25 years ago and I still remember so many moments, especially the mood", recalls Ramos on that historic day. "The fall of the Berlin Wall ended a chapter of European history reaching back more than a hundred years. However, it also opened a new chapter, and so far, we don't yet know what it's going to be or where it's going to lead."

Origins and aftermath

Following the end of World War II in 1945, Germany was split into four distinct zones, with each one administered by each of the main Allied forces. Berlin itself was divided in two, with West Berlin existing as a free city and East Berlin absorbed into the increasing Soviet grip on Eastern Europe. In 1961, the semi-autonomous communist government the German Democratic Republic – under direction from the Kremlin – decreed that a new wall would be erected to physically divide the city in two, effectively cutting East Berliners off from the rest of the Western world. For 28 years, the Berlin Wall signified a city evolving in two very different directions. When the first East Berlin citizens passed the guard patrols into the free West Berlin, it was the start of the breaking up of the Eastern Bloc and the first steps toward a unified Germany that would see it become one of the most robust economic powers in Europe.

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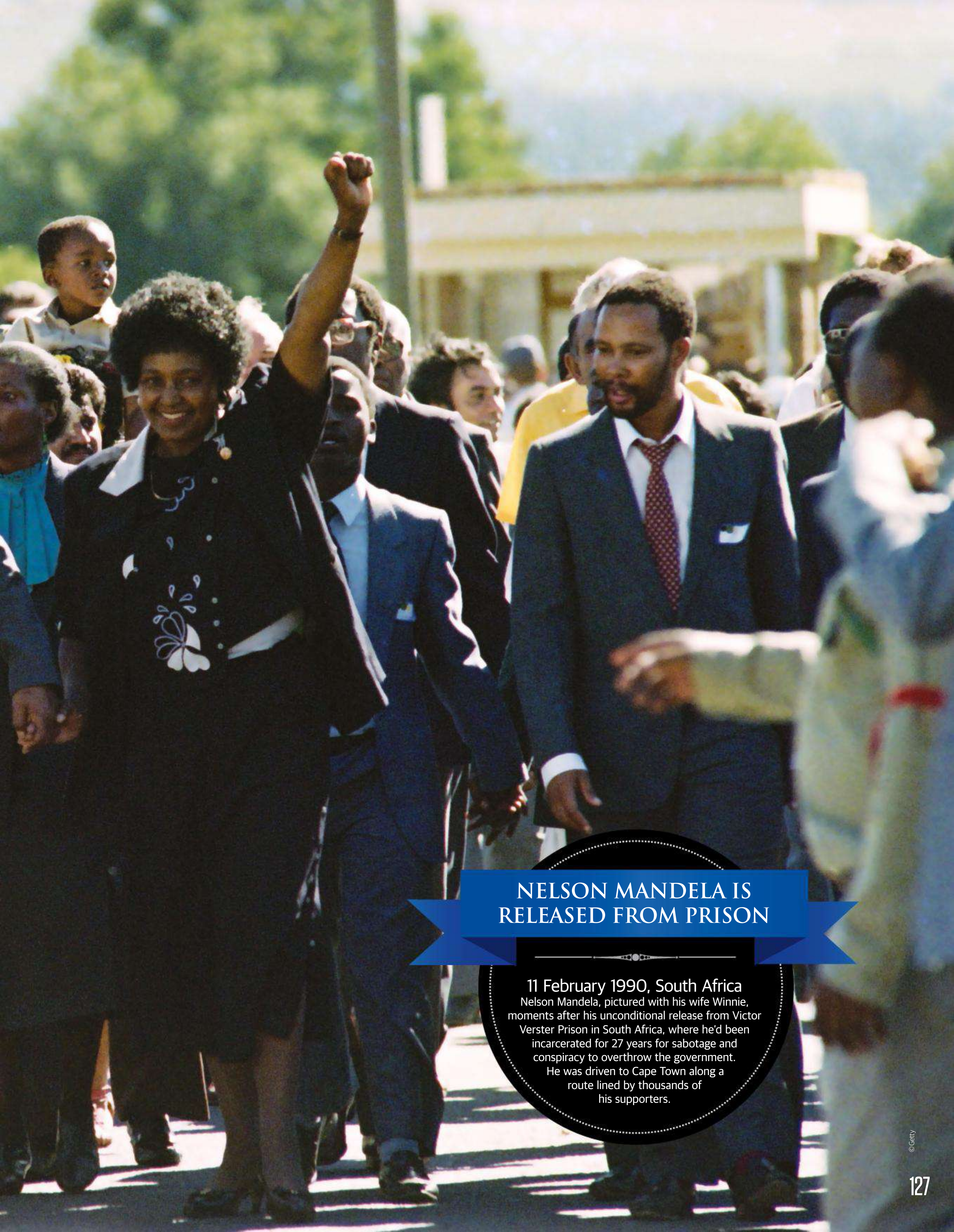

NELSON MANDELA IS RELEASED FROM PRISON

11 February 1990, South Africa

Nelson Mandela, pictured with his wife Winnie, moments after his unconditional release from Victor Verster Prison in South Africa, where he'd been incarcerated for 27 years for sabotage and conspiracy to overthrow the government. He was driven to Cape Town along a route lined by thousands of his supporters.

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THE GOOD FRIDAY AGREEMENT IS REACHED

6 July 1998, Northern Ireland

Two soldiers of the British Army befriend local children on Garvaghy Road in Portadown, Armagh. The notorious road became a battleground for loyalist rebellion in the days after this photograph was taken. Six months later, the Good Friday Agreement, reached in April 1998, comes into effect, giving the Northern Irish government devolved powers that remain today. It remains the most important piece of legislation in maintaining peace.

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ELECTION CONTROVERSY ROCKS FLORIDA

8 December 2000, Florida, US

It's not often that one state decides an American presidential election, but that's exactly what happened in 2000. In a tense run, Democrat Al Gore and Republican George W Bush face off for the top job but the vote in Florida is so close that a recount is demanded. Bush ends up winning the state by 537 votes, causing Gore to concede the contest and the presidency.

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BEHIND THE SCENES OF OBAMA'S INAUGURATION

20 January 2009, Washington, DC

After eight years of Republican rule under George W Bush, Democrat Barack Obama is elected president of the United States of America in a landslide victory on 4 November 2008. Obama becomes the first African American president after winning 365 electoral votes. His inauguration on 20 January 2009 sets record attendance numbers. With viewers watching on TV and online, it's one of the most watched events in history.

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BOUAZIZI'S SUICIDE IGNITES THE ARAB SPRING

17 December 2010, Sidi Bouzid, Tunisia

When Mohamed Bouazizi's unlicensed cart is confiscated, he pays the fine but the policewoman spits in his face. Humiliated, he heads to the provincial headquarters to complain. No one will see him. He leaves but returns an hour later, douses himself with fuel and sets himself on fire. Following his death, unrest causes Tunisia's unpopular leader, Zine El Abidine Ben Ali, to step down. While not his aim, Bouazizi's act of protest would ignite the Arab Spring.

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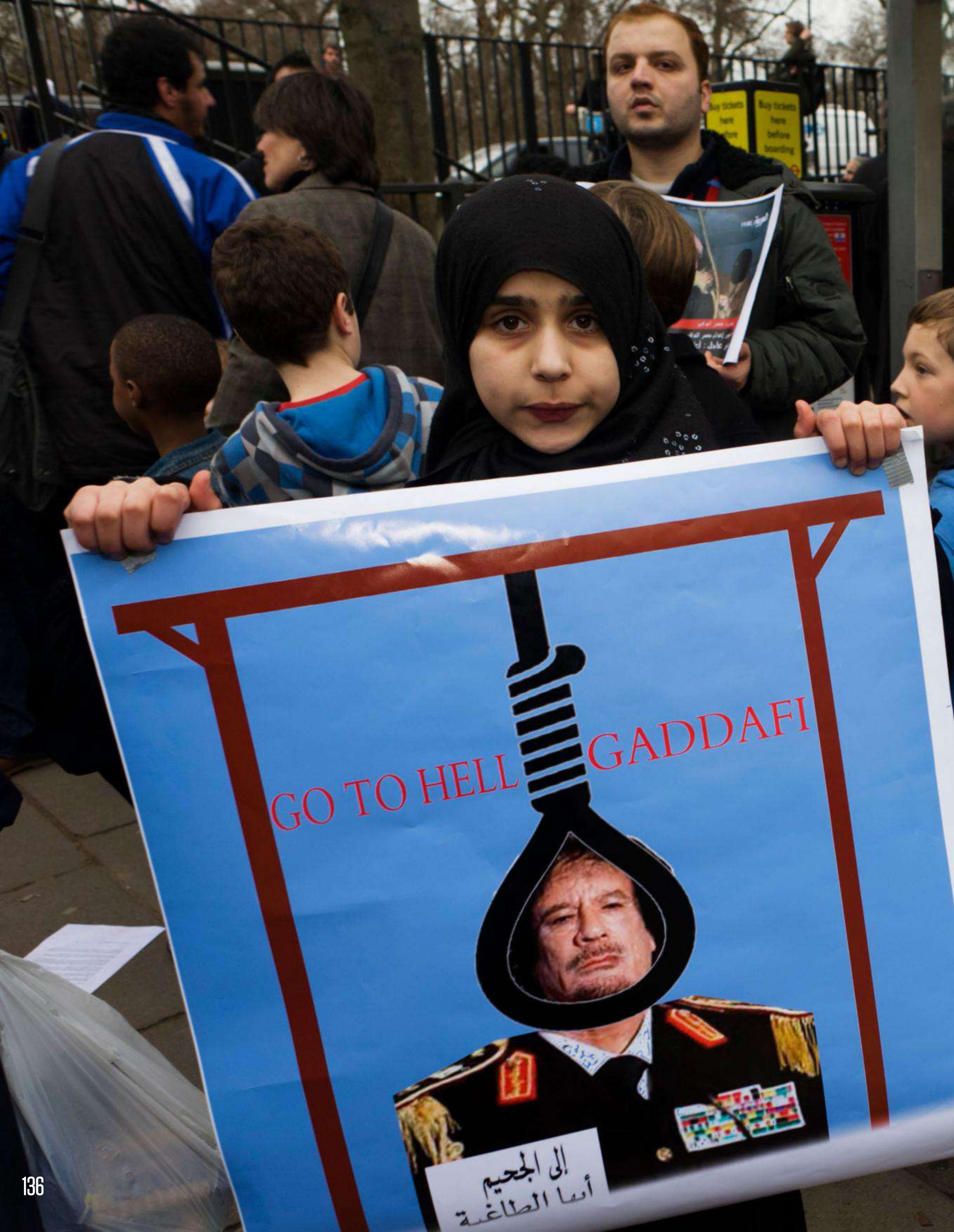
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GIRL PROTESTS FOR GADDAFI'S EXECUTION

2011, London, UK

After seizing power in a coup on 1 September 1969, Muammar Gaddafi's reputation goes from liberator to dictator. As protests against him become a revolution in 2011, NATO intervenes to support the rebels. With the fall of Tripoli in August, Gaddafi goes into hiding. Protests calling for his execution begin across the world, including in front of the Libyan embassy in London. By 20 October Gaddafi is dead. How he meets his end is unclear.

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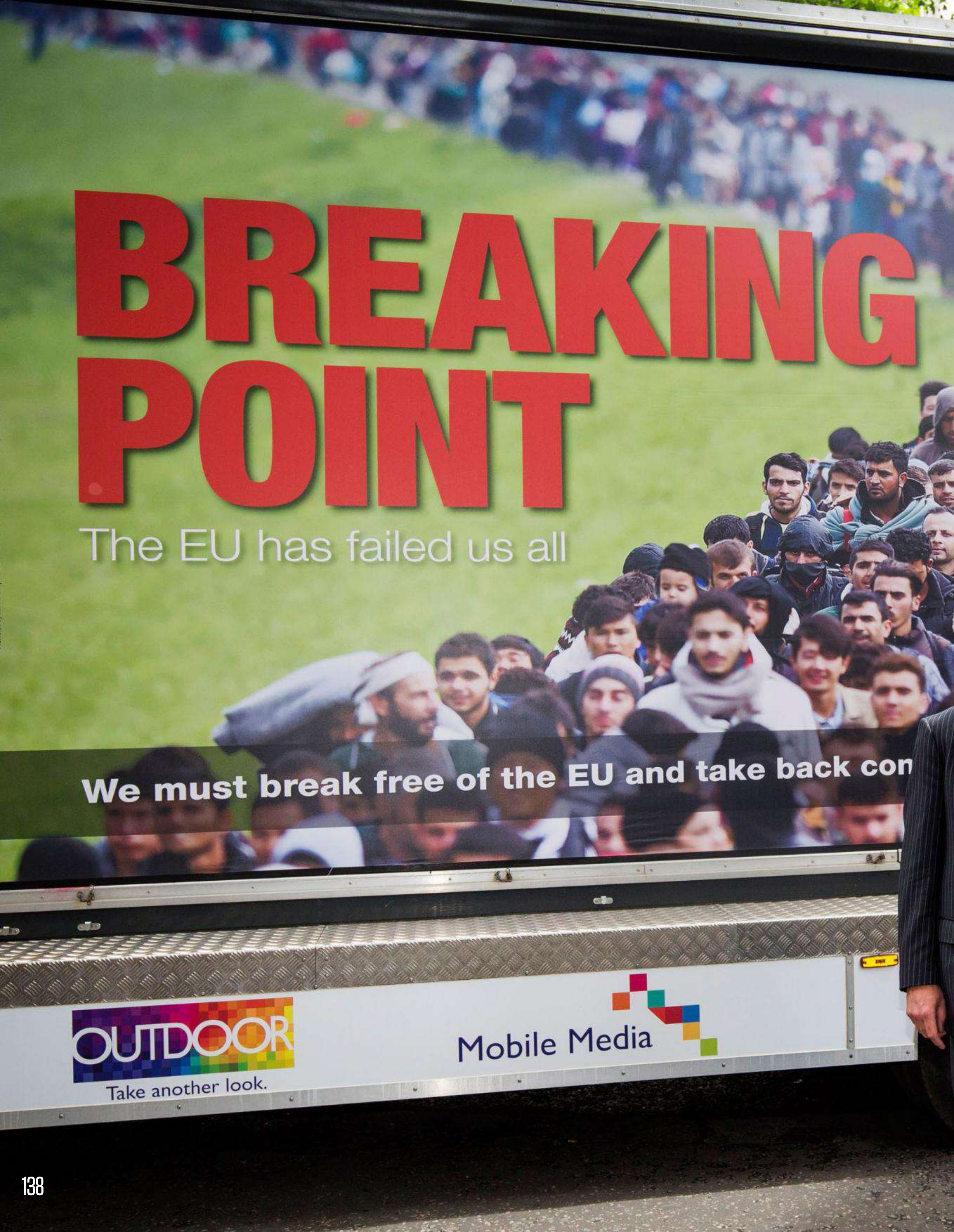
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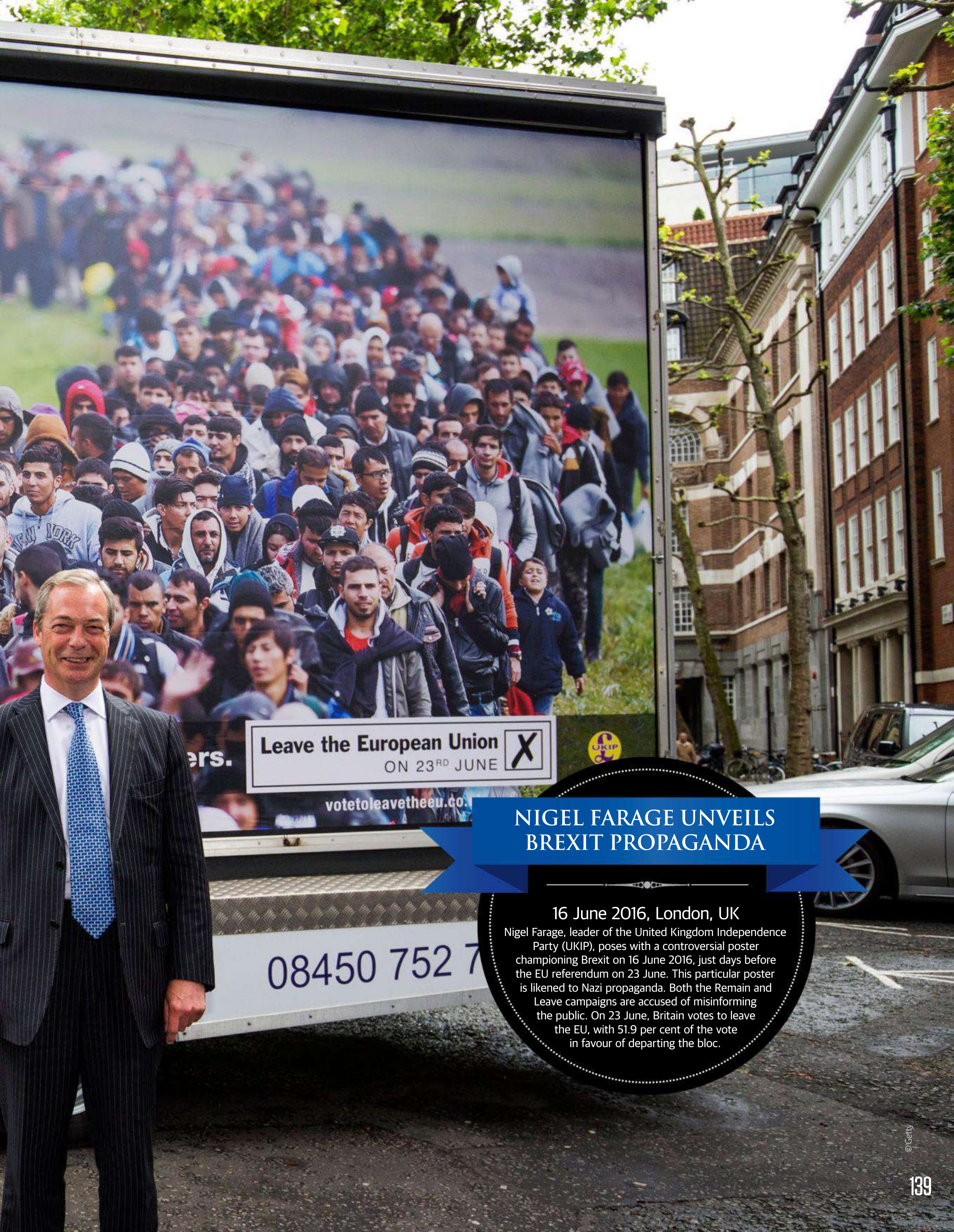
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NIGEL FARAGE UNVEILS BREXIT PROPAGANDA

16 June 2016, London, UK

Nigel Farage, leader of the United Kingdom Independence Party (UKIP), poses with a controversial poster championing Brexit on 16 June 2016, just days before the EU referendum on 23 June. This particular poster is likened to Nazi propaganda. Both the Remain and Leave campaigns are accused of misinforming the public. On 23 June, Britain votes to leave the EU, with 51.9 per cent of the vote in favour of departing the bloc.

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PRESIDENT-ELECT TRUMP MEETS PRESIDENT OBAMA

10 November 2016, Washington, DC

Two days after a surprise victory in the US Presidential elections on the 8 November 2016, President Obama meets with President-elect Donald Trump in the Oval Office of the White House to discuss a peaceful transition. Journalists at the scene comment on the awkwardness of the meeting. Trump won 304 of the electoral votes compared to Hillary Clinton's 227, though Clinton proved to be more successful in the popular vote.

© Getty

DISGRACED PARK GEUN-HYE ATTENDS CORRUPTION TRIAL

23 May 2017, Seoul, South Korea

In late 2016, President Park Guen-hye (left) is accused of corruption and abusing power in collusion with Choi Soon-sil (right) for demanding major corporations pay bribes to her in return for favours. Removed from power and impeached on 10 March 2017, the first hearing of her trial is held on 23 May, which could see South Korea's first female leader imprisoned for life. Escorted to trial in handcuffs, she wears a badge with her inmate number 503 on her suit.

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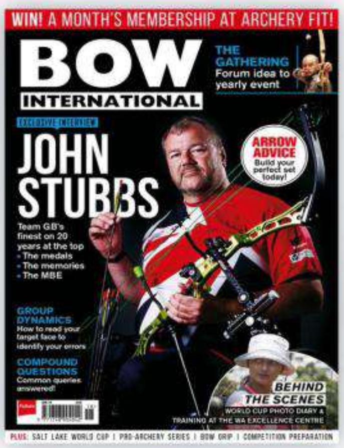
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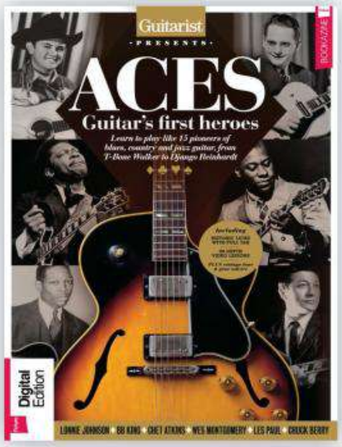
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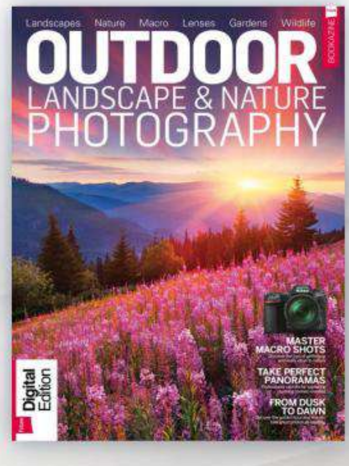
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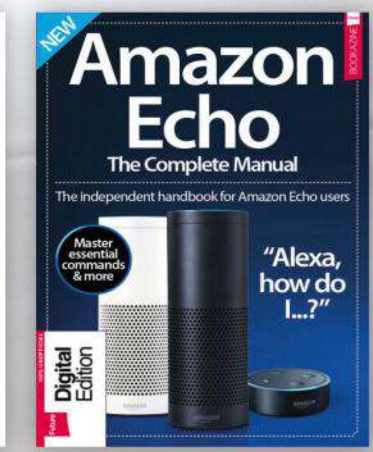
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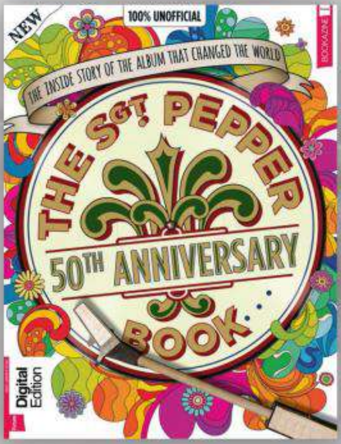
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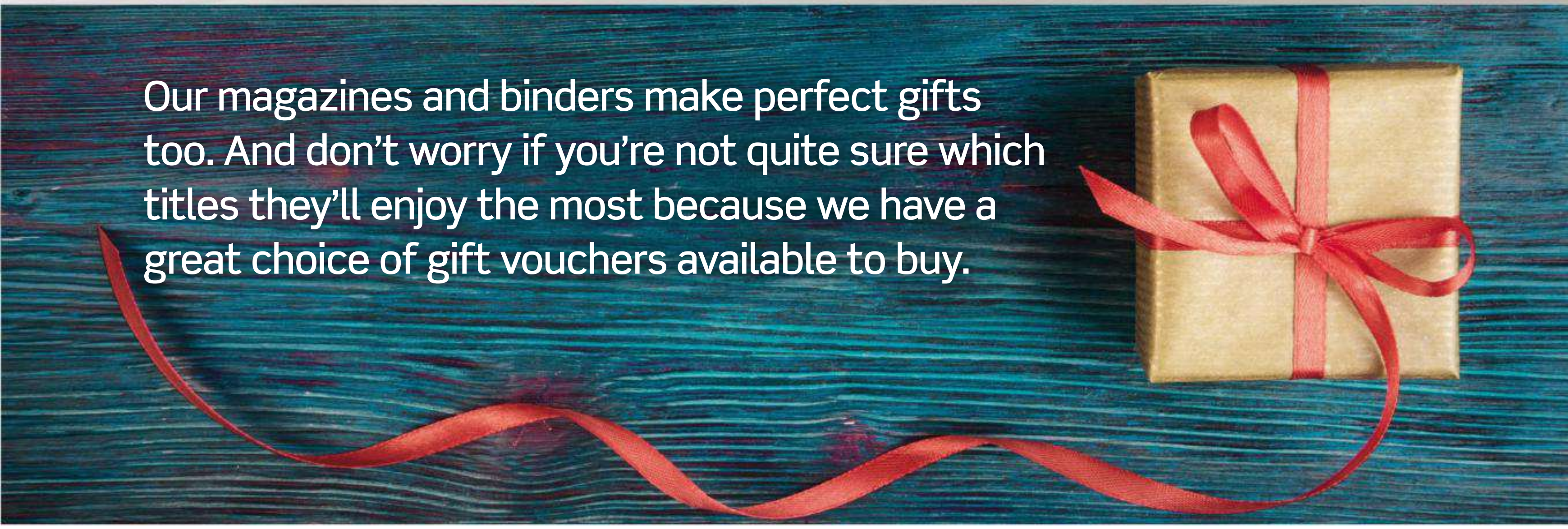

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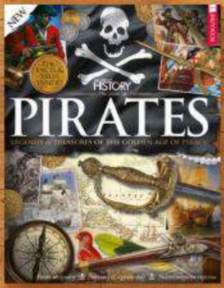
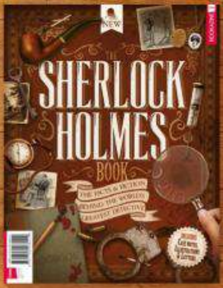
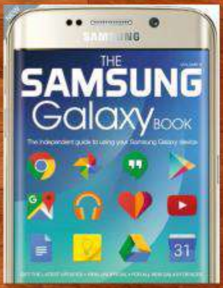

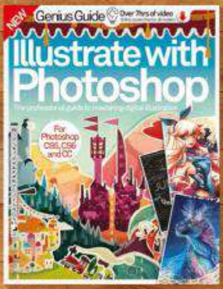

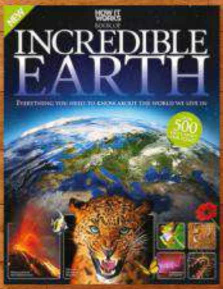

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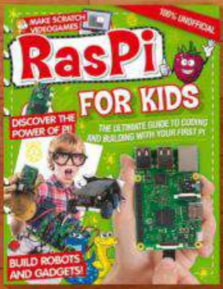
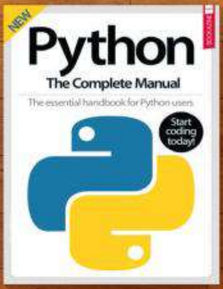
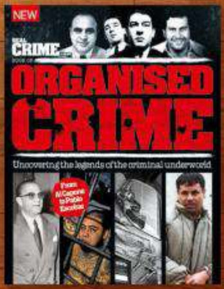

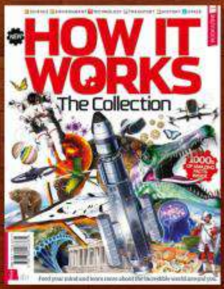

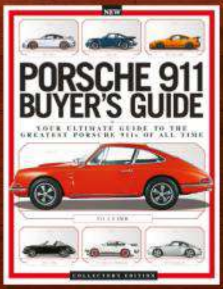

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